

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOLUME XX
NUMBER 4

APRIL, 1912

WHOLE
NUMBER 194

THE GENERAL-SCIENCE COURSE IN THE UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL

WILLIAM L. EIKENBERRY
The University High School, Chicago

SOME GENERAL PRINCIPLES

When science was first admitted to the American school under the name of natural philosophy it included in a single course the explanation of a very wide range of phenomena belonging to several sciences. In the differentiation which followed upon the expansion of the science curriculum this original generalized course was split up into several distinct sciences. Each of these has been very completely organized within its own field and without reference either to its relations with the other sciences or to the common elements in all science. The consequence is that the science course in the high school lacks continuity. The pupil enters a very specialized work with no previous preparation, and he usually pursues his first work in a particular science without the assistance of the perspective that an elementary knowledge of other sciences would furnish. Each science is taught as if it were in itself a complete system of knowledge unrelated to other science knowledge.

Later years have seen a reaction from this extreme position in the form of a demand for some sort of introductory course which shall precede all existing high-school science courses, and, by the relation of its content and method to the common phenomena of science, in some measure prepare for each of them. The concrete

reply to this demand is the general-science courses which are being tried in so many places in the country.

An earlier attempt was made to meet the need through the work of the elementary school in nature-study or elementary science. That the elementary school has not been able to meet the need completely is sufficiently indicated by the present interest in the general-science movement. That nature-study will meet this demand within a period of time sufficiently short to bring the matter into the present discussion is highly improbable. Each new investigation of the status of nature-study in our elementary schools emphasizes the lack of preparation on the part of the teachers, the limited opportunity for prospective teachers to secure such preparation along with the large amount of other work which their course calls for, and an absurdly small average time actually used in science instruction in the elementary schools of the country. It is perfectly obvious that there must be an extensive change in school methods before science instruction in the elementary schools will be given in sufficient quantity and with such reliability and uniformity that the science program of the high school may be founded upon it. Also, it is not clear to all that such uniformity is desirable in the elementary school. It is evident, then, that the high school must solve its own science problem; it cannot pass the problem down to the grades. It is of course quite possible that the present attempt to increase the efficiency of the seventh and eighth grades, with a view to shortening the time occupied in this part of the school course, may develop the possibility of doing work equivalent to general science in those grades, as a few schools appear to be doing already. This result is more probable if the administration of these two grades is to be transferred to the high school, as is suggested; for the administration of such a course would be easier in connection with the routine of the high school than in the elementary school. This possibility is also sufficiently remote to leave the science problems with the high school for a good while at best.

The University High School early recognized the necessity for an elementary study of the field of all the sciences as a requisite for success in any one of them. It attempted to meet this need in an

experimental way by the organization of short courses in botany, zoölogy, physiography, and physics, to be given in the first and second years to all pupils. The total amount of time consumed in these four courses exceeded that usually given to one unit in science. The usual courses in science were open to election by those who had completed these elementary courses. It was the general opinion that these courses were of decided value, and the record of the pupils in the more advanced courses bears out this opinion. As a first step, this work appears to have been a success, but it could not be the final solution, since the lack of co-ordination between its separate parts was likely to be as great as between any other science courses. As the experiment progressed, it became increasingly evident that the materials used must be combined in a single course, in which the boundary lines between the sciences should be as inconspicuous as possible. In a word, we wished a synthetic course, a general course in science. The present course in general science is the outcome of this feeling.

The work in general science in the University High School is a required course in the first year. It extends through the whole of the first year, and meets five times a week. Two of these meetings are for double periods, making the total time in the classroom seven periods, or about four and a half full hours a week. The course was given in 1910-11 and is being repeated in 1911-12. During the past year there were four sections, averaging over twenty pupils at the close of the year. There are at present also four sections with a slightly smaller number of pupils.

The production of a synthetic course has been kept in mind throughout in the organization of our materials. It is obvious that a course which takes up topics from one science exclusively for a month or a quarter, and follows this during some similar period by a study of material from some other science, is not a general course. The mere fact that four or five short courses in different sciences are pursued consecutively during a single year under the same teacher does not enable such a sequence of studies to qualify as a course in general science. It differs in no essential way from the series of short elementary courses formerly maintained in the University High School, which it was desired to supplant. In the organization

of the new course the boundary lines of the sciences are purposely disregarded. Phenomena which appear likely to seem significant to the pupil, and to be of educative value, are made subjects of study, and the investigation of these phenomena is carried in whatever direction is necessary, regardless of the particular field of science that may be invaded. It sometimes occurs that the treatment of one topic may involve several of the divisions of the field of science, and in other cases the whole matter lies within the domain of a single science. Either contingency is equally a matter of unconcern, provided only that the topic be clear and significant to the pupil, and susceptible of being taught in a scientific manner.

The materials selected for use in constructing this course are particularly those which have some present significance to the pupils. This must not be taken to mean that only those materials are admitted that have an immediate relation to problems of bread and butter. Such significance is not to be neglected, but there are many other ways in which things become significant to adolescent pupils. In fact, a very great many pupils of this age have felt the economic pressure so little that they are not much concerned about the monetary value of their education. Things are significant to them in terms of the life they now lead, rather than in terms of preparation for more remote adult years. The adolescent is usually immensely interested in the new experiences which the world is affording him; he is yet busied in getting an acquaintance with his rapidly expanding world. The implements of his sport, the street car or automobile in which he rides, the source of his food and clothing, health and disease, the ever-changing weather, his daily school tasks, and the varied commercial and industrial activities about him are all meaningful. Compressed air is more important to him in a bicycle tire than in a Boyle's Law apparatus, though he is not afraid of Boyle's Law if it will help him to understand something about the tire.

The work of the school or the problem of the class may be the thing that gives significance in particular cases, so that very often it is not necessary to go outside of the course in science to find plenty of motive. In the work of the classes which are at present taking our course in general science it has been found that interest

was at almost its highest point in the study of the rather abstract matter of the molecular theory. This appears to be due partly to the aid which it gave in the attempt to explain certain facts about the air, and in larger part to the appeal which it made to the imagination. In all cases we have found it possible to secure good work when the pupil felt that he knew what he wanted with the knowledge he was seeking, either in explaining his environment, in solving the problems raised in the classroom, or as a stimulus to his imagination. It is in this light that our selection of significant materials must be considered. In all cases where it was felt necessary to round out the work by the use of materials not likely to be called out by the interest of the pupils we have sought some way of making them significant.

The method of attack upon a new topic may be made to contribute very much to the importance and interest which it assumes in the mind of the pupil. If the matter is one that is familiar in everyday experience, but with some unexplained factors, the beginning is made upon the firm ground of former experience. As quickly as possible the unexplained factors are developed, and the pupil is brought face to face with the problem which in the existing state of his knowledge he cannot solve. The difficulty usually lies in lack of knowledge of associated phenomena. These, then, must be investigated, and from this investigation return is made to the original problem.

This is not at all a new method, but an examination of textbooks in science does not indicate that the authors commonly suppose that such a method will be employed in the classes. In the usual manner of presentation of a subject the topics are so arranged and handled that the first prepares the ground for the second, the second paves the way toward the third, and the third leads on to the next, in a very smooth and easy ascent. But there is nowhere in the first or second topic any indication of that which may be its only reason for being—its application to the main proposition. The carefully graded steps are very pleasing to one who has an outlook over the whole subject, but the pupil does not have this outlook. He finds himself, not upon the highroad, but in an inclosed winding stairway, where he can see nothing excepting that one step leads to another.

With no view of either his surroundings or of the goal toward which he is striving, the way is a weary one. The pupil is continually preparing to meet a future contingency which is never in his sight. That he continues to strive is an indication of great faith in his instructors, where it is not blind fatalism.

This is not the place to discuss the desirability of greater motivation of the work presented to students in college and in the later years of the high school, in which it may be supposed that greater vision and perspective have been developed. Both theory and experience seem to indicate that in the first year of the high school the immediate reason for a particular piece of work needs to be kept above the horizon. In this course, therefore, we frequently introduce topics for the complete consideration of which the pupil is not prepared. As soon as the problem is properly developed the pupil is guided in making a sort of side excursion in quest of the necessary information, later to return to the solution of the original problem. For example, we may take the study of a burning candle. Before investigation of the flame has proceeded far, the teacher will manage to call attention to the presence of water in the flame. The pupils soon convince themselves that the water does not enter the flame as water, and that its presence cannot be explained by any facts with which they are familiar. Usually they are soon convinced that it must have been formed in the flame. Questions regarding the nature of water and the possible method of formation lead to a consideration of water as a chemical compound and some discussion of chemical combination. When, by experiment and reading, some understanding of these things has been secured, it is not difficult to explain the presence of water in the flame. In the course of this study the pupils have been acquiring knowledge of chemical fact and theory, but it has been acquired because they have had a definite present use for it in a concrete situation, and not in the nebulous hope that some future occasion might demonstrate its value.

Our experience has been that the motivation thus furnished is of great importance. It is believed, too, that it is a healthy experience for youth to come face to face with a problem offering real difficulty, and to find that it yields when proper study has been made of all the facts. So are the problems of life solved.

The problem of securing unity in such an apparently diverse mass of materials is one of the most puzzling to arise. The expression "apparently diverse" is used advisedly, for it is in no way evident that the diversity of materials is in reality so great as appears at first sight, nor that it seems so to the pupil. The mature mind, habituated to assorting facts in certain fixed categories, immediately classifies the items in any mass of materials as physical, chemical, biological, and so on, and esteems those items as widely divergent which fall into different groups. The pupil who enters the high school usually not only does not habitually think in terms of physics, chemistry, and biology, but is in fact unable to classify phenomena in these groups with any certainty. It is evident, therefore, that the association of phenomena belonging to a particular science can have no significance to him, excepting as such significance is developed in the study. The associations of phenomena as he finds them in nature are to him much more important than our logical systems. For instance, the successful operation of a motorcycle calls for the practical application of principles in chemistry, the mechanics of solids, pneumatics, electricity, and other branches of science, but to the high-school boy who owns a machine all contingencies which arise are merely parts of the problem of the motorcycle. His notion of the relations of phenomena is valid equally with our own, and a deal more useful to him.

Perhaps it is a fair conclusion that much of the demand for unity in an elementary science course arises from the characteristics of the mature mind and does not find justification in the nature of the child. The reasons for organizing the material around any particular science or series of sciences do not appear to be compelling, unless it be deemed desirable that the first view of the field of science which the child is given shall be a partial view. In that case unity is secured as to particular sciences with discontinuity as regards the pupil's experience. General science seeks to secure unity in a broad view of the field, leaving to later work the delimitation of the fields of the separate sciences and the organization of the fundamental lines of unity in those sciences. Unity there must be, but it is not conceived that it must be of precisely the order that we are used to in more advanced courses.

ORGANIZATION OF MATERIALS

It is usually assumed that one purpose of the courses in science is to enable the pupil to adjust himself more exactly to his environment. Understanding of environment has been the point of beginning in our arrangement of material. The phenomena may be grouped in many ways. We have chosen to consider the air, the waters, the solid earth, and the living things which inhabit the earth. Taken broadly, these are the divisions commonly recognized by physical geography, and in so far, at least, our organization of material is frankly geographical. These great divisions are taken up in the order mentioned. The air is selected as the one with which to open the work, because it is sufficiently novel and mysterious to attract attention and to raise many questions at the very beginning. In the study of the lands the point of departure is the soil, and this study gains considerable advantage from the preceding study of air and water. The greater complexity of the biological materials has determined the position of this division as the last. It must not be supposed, however, that all biological materials have been postponed to this time. Quite to the contrary, many biological topics are treated at length in the three preceding divisions; but the proportion of biological materials is greater in the last division. This will become more clear as the content of each of the divisions is presented in more detail. In giving this account, the work of last year will be principally in mind, but liberty will be taken to deviate from this on some points which have been revised for presentation to the classes of the present year.

In beginning the work with the air, some questions are raised relating to the reality of the air in the sense that other and familiar substances are real. These questions lead to the study of the most obvious physical characteristics of the air, such as weight, pressure, elasticity, expansion when heated, and humidity. The study of these subjects furnishes plenty of problems leading to a continuation of the subject. The seasonal changes in temperature, usually beginning to be evident during the opening month of school, lead to study of the variations in insolation; the ever-changing atmospheric conditions demand study of the weather; and the elasticity of the air is used to raise questions which lead to a study of the

molecular theory. A candle flame is used to stimulate a study of the chemical nature of the atmosphere, somewhat after the manner of Faraday's famous lectures, and the knowledge secured, first applied to the solution of the problems of the candle itself, is immediately used again in elucidating the relation of green plants to the air and to the food-supply of the world. The study of the composition of the air is completed by some investigation of its dust-content, both organic and inorganic. Bread-cultures by the pupils and agar-cultures by the teachers demonstrate that part of the dust is living, and bring up the whole question of molds and bacteria. There is no intention of requiring any study of these excepting such as may be made by observation of cultures on bread, agar, potato, or milk, but when, as usually occurs, the pupils ask to see the organisms under the compound microscope they are gratified as fully as possible. The house-fly as an agent for the transfer of bacteria cannot be omitted: unfortunately this year a scarcity of material at the proper season hindered as complete laboratory study of the anatomy and life-history of the insect as is desirable. At this point the division on the air is closed.

Starting from the questions regarding the relation of liquids and gases which have developed during the term, a study is made of the freezing and vaporization of water, together with the associated phenomena and their contact with life, from perspiration to "artificial" ice. To this is added an elementary consideration of water-pressures and buoyancy. A very large part of the time allotted to the subject of water is given to study from a geographical point of view. Lake Michigan has been made the center of this line of work. The pupils study concrete data to discover what influence the lake may have had upon the founding of the city and its growth, its present relation to commerce and to climate, to water-supply, and to the disposal of the city's waste. This study is not narrowly restricted, however, but rather it is used to lead out into a broader consideration of the general relations of bodies of water to commerce, climate, and recreation. The question of the water-supply of cities and the disposal of their sewage is given much attention, to the end that the pupil may have at least a budding intelligence about these great civic problems.

The third division is occupied with a study of work and energy. Beginning with the knowledge of the lever which the pupils bring from mathematics, we attempt to build up a notion of work. This notion is then applied to the solution of the problem offered by a set of pulleys or an inclined plane. In successive steps are treated power, heat as a form of energy, transformations, the sun as a source of energy, and the energy-supply of plants and animals.

The fourth division is organized around the most familiar feature of the earth's crust—the soil. In the form of problems regarding the origin, character, and loss of soils, the pupil studies facts that might otherwise be classified as weathering, glaciation, erosion, sedimentation, soil physics and soil chemistry, and the relation of plants to soils. If time permits we shall this year precede soil studies with some consideration of rocks and minerals and a few important mineral products, such as iron and coal.

The last part, including a more systematic survey of man's biological environment, is at present in process of revision with a view to such considerable expansion that it would be quite superfluous to present any analysis at this time. It is believed that the discussion of the other parts has given some notion of the general character of the material, and that the details are not of interest in the present tentative form. Those who are concerned in the construction of the course feel that it is entirely tentative at present, and as such it is presented.

It would not be proper to close this account of the materials of the course without making quite clear the part that others than the writer have had in the constructive work. The inception of the work is due to Dr. O. W. Caldwell, director of the work in natural science in the School of Education; the classes have been taught by the writer and his colleague, Dr. Mary Blount. All three have co-operated in constructing the course.

RESULTS

The measurement of the results of any course of study in terms of some unit which is so standardized that the results are comparable with other results secured under different conditions is admittedly a difficult thing. A plan for such measurement was outlined at the

beginning of the work and carried through the year, but it has not been found possible to reduce the results to such form that they are comparable with any absolute scale. The perfection of the technique of such investigation is a matter that is engaging the attention of many at the present juncture, but no one has yet been able to point out a valid method of evaluating the results of a series of tests such as were given. There is, therefore, no way known to the writer in which the results of this course may be expressed in a wholly satisfactory manner. There are, however, three methods by which results may be expressed qualitatively if not quantitatively.

Since all courses in science in the University High School excepting general science are elective, it appears possible to secure some measure of the success of this course in arousing interest. It may be assumed that any unusual increase in science-election in the near future, if such be found to occur, should be attributed to the influence of this course. It is intended that such an examination of the data shall be made, but this would be fruitless at the present time, since few of those who were in the general-science course last year have progressed far enough in the required branches to be in a position to exercise their elective privileges in this way.

Possibly more significant than the number of elections is the quality of the work done by those who have had this preparation and later pursue other courses in science. Obviously no conclusion can be drawn in this case until a considerable number of pupils have passed into the higher courses of the school.

The opinion of the teachers of the higher classes has a certain value, even though it be based upon general impressions rather than upon measurement. A number of teachers who are in the best position to see results have expressed themselves as entirely certain that very definite advantage to their work has resulted. This opinion is, of course, founded largely upon the results of the four partial elementary courses previously referred to. It is the feeling of those who have had the most intimate relations to the organization and conduct of the course that it has been a success, though they are possibly more acutely conscious than anyone else of the defects which exist.

A COURSE IN MORAL EDUCATION FOR THE HIGH SCHOOL

FRANK CHAPMAN SHARP

The University of Wisconsin

AND

HENRY NEUMANN

The Ethical Culture School, New York City

Many teachers are considering the introduction into their schools of a course in moral education. The following program is offered in the hope that it may be of assistance to those who have decided to undertake this work. At the same time it may help, because of the detail with which it is presented, to dispel some of the many current misunderstandings as to the aims and methods of those who believe that systematic moral education should be given a place in the school curriculum.

The course here outlined is not entirely an untried experiment. Considerable portions of it have been given during the past three years in the high schools of Wisconsin and of some other states. The first year's work, and parts of the work of the succeeding years, are also being given this year by one of the authors in the new University of Wisconsin Demonstration School and in the Madison City High School.

This course is not primarily a course in moral instruction. Naturally, information will be obtained in the prosecution of the work, and such information is appraised by the authors at its full value. But, in the first place, information in matters moral, perhaps in all matters, is really assimilated only as it enters the mind through other channels beside that of rote memorization. In the second place, the supplying of information is, in any event, a subordinate feature of this course. Its main purpose is to develop power, and to develop it in such a way that it will tend to pass over into action, and be conserved through habit. The power which it is sought to develop is the power to see straight, the power, that is, to perceive in essential completeness the situations which life

presents, to analyze them, and to understand the demands which they make upon us. The habit which it is desired to cultivate is that of reflecting before acting. The primary end may be said to be, in the words of Thomas Arnold, the development of moral thoughtfulness, both as power and habit. The ultimate purpose of this is, of course, that the will may be guided by wisdom and sagacity. But we may expect as a second result that the will will be strengthened to do right, because moral indifference and moral perversity are mainly due to the failure to realize clearly the issues that hang upon our conduct, and realization cannot extend beyond insight. Such dimness of vision produces the fundamental vices, weakness and selfishness; for "spirits are not finely touched but to fine issues." Other methods of strengthening and broadening the will are used wherever this seems advisable, notably in the first year, where it is sought to awaken the higher nature by the contagion of example.

From the preceding statement of purposes it will be obvious that in our view a course in moral education must start from the interests and desires of the young people as we find them when they enter the class, and must aim to lead them, step by step, to the discovery that morality involves the satisfaction of the deepest and most permanent of these desires. The complete task of the teacher involves, indeed, something more, but at this we can only hint. As far as possible we must see to it that these discoveries pass over into the appropriate action in the school life of the pupil, in his relations to the school authorities, from the janitor to the principal, to his fellow-students, and to his work. Thus will arise the habit of acting upon new insight. But a second effect is even more important. Aristotle tells us that parents love their children better than the children love their parents, because the parent is constantly planning and working for the child. When the pupil submits to the discipline of the school, in all that the word discipline involves, not in the spirit of the slave, but with the consent of the will which comes from rational insight into the nature of the ends served, then his perhaps weak interests in the self of a few years hence and in his fellows will inevitably be strengthened. His conduct will be raised to a new level, upon which again a new structure of insight

may be reared, to serve, in turn, as the basis of stronger and more catholic desires, while the glow that comes from successful effort may awaken him to new ranges of experience, hitherto, for him, non-existent. If, in addition, the activities of the pupil outside the school can be guided through co-operation with the home, through the formation of clubs for civic improvement, and in other ways, the results will be so much the greater.

The program that is here offered will require for its completion two periods a week for four years. Its various parts are pretty closely interwoven into one whole; nevertheless those teachers who can devote but a single period a week to this work will find it possible to use the material offered by making the necessary omissions. It is believed that the best results will be obtained if the course is given as an elective. Credit may be allowed, as for any other course, but in the last two years at least no grades should be given except "passed" and "not passed." Otherwise there is great danger that the spirit of free inquiry will be destroyed and be replaced with a spirit of hypocrisy and cant which asks only, "What can I say that will please the teacher?"

FIRST YEAR

The primary end of the first year's work is the development of the will to do right by arousing moral enthusiasm through contagion. The means employed are the study of the biographies of Americans, including the members of our own generation. Americans are selected because the American boy or girl can understand better and enter more completely into the life of those who have lived in his own country and have dealt with an environment, material and human, in many respects, at least, like his own. For the same reason our contemporaries are to be preferred, in so far as we can find the necessary material. Washington, and even Lincoln, often seem a long way off; what held for them may not hold for us. Even we educated adults are apt to be more affected when we read in the newspaper a record of present-day devotion than when we hear of some heroic action that took place two or three centuries ago. Furthermore a course that keeps within the national boundary lines possesses a certain unity. It also tends to develop the spirit of patriotism, and to show us how our patriotism, municipal, state, and national, may exhibit itself in action.

The fundamental purpose of this part of the course is to awaken and stimulate the better nature through the influence of other lives. But a number of subsidiary ends may be pursued at the same time. The moral judgment may be trained effectively by the use of this material. The mind may be

taught to understand the nature of the human world which will determine to so great an extent its reactions, to discover the appropriate means for the ends it may adopt, to distinguish between appearance and reality in the matter of both means and ends, to see and to recognize when found the higher values in life, and to see the relationship between the higher and enduring goods of life and what is commonly regarded as success. Furthermore, the pupil may be trained to enter with insight into the trials, the successes and failures, the joys and sorrows of other lives than his own; to respect his fellow-men, even when their conception of duty is different from his own; to take the proper attitude toward the faults of good men¹; and, finally, to see that morality involves not weakness of will, as seems to be often supposed, but strength.

The statement of purposes with which the teacher opens the course will correspond exactly to those which he himself has in view in conducting it. We shall tell our pupils that we want to help them to understand life, its duties, its privileges, its dangers, and its wealth of good things for the mind prepared to receive them. Many men—shall we say most men?—make more or less of a failure of life. They themselves suffer, they make others suffer; they degrade themselves, they degrade those about them. We, as teachers, want to help the members of this generation to do a little better than many of the members of our own have done. This does not mean that we consider ourselves complete masters of the art of life, any more than the fact that we teach history or science means that we know everything that is to be known about those disciplines. We merely claim, in virtue of being a little older than our pupils, to have learned enough about life—too often through sad experiences—to be able to set them thinking, and perhaps to help them find an answer to some of their questions. We assume, then, that they want to learn to distinguish right from wrong, to gain the power to watch intelligently both right and wrong conduct in operation, and to be convinced of the existence of unselfish devotion in the world that actually surrounds them.

I (a). (First Semester). *American biography*.—Unfortunately there is not a large amount of biography dealing with contemporary Americans that is adapted to boys and girls of thirteen to fifteen years. In fact, but two books have been found which appear to be entirely satisfactory for our purposes. They are: *Theodore Roosevelt, the Boy and the Man*, by James R. Morgan (Macmillan, 1907); and *Up from Slavery*, by Booker T. Washington (Doubleday, Page & Co., 1902). In addition it will be found possible to use the greater part of *Walter Reed and Yellow Fever*, by H. A. Kelly (McClure, Philipps & Co., 1906), and parts of *An American Citizen: The Life of William Henry Baldwin, Jr.*, by John Graham Brooks (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1910). In a community with a considerable foreign population, *The Making of an American*, by Jacob Riis (Macmillan, 1908), may perhaps be used to advantage. The teacher who is using Morgan's life of Roosevelt will find valuable supplementary material in *Theodore Roosevelt, the Citizen*, by Jacob Riis (Macmillan, 1904); *The Man Roosevelt*, by Francis E. Leupp (Appleton, 1904); and *The Many-sided Roosevelt*, by G. W. Douglas (Dodd, Mead & Co., 1907). The class will derive both amusement and profit from *A Cartoon*

¹ See Gulick, *Mind and Work*, chap. ii, reprinted from the *World's Work*, July, 1908.

History of Roosevelt's Career, by Albert Shaw (The Review of Reviews Co., 1910). If in the above list the name of none of the notable American women of our generation appears, this is because it has been impossible to find the biography of such a woman that seems adapted to the needs and capacities of pupils of this grade. The need is a little less pressing than may appear, because, while it is not easy to interest boys in the biography of a woman, girls are very easily interested in the biographies of men.

If the teacher wishes to carry this kind of work through the second semester also, or if he wishes to give a single semester's course dealing only with the past, the following books may be recommended. That they take our pupils back to an earlier period of our national life than that which has just been studied will do no harm. As far as possible, all history should be taught backward, and that for the same reason that we now begin the study of geography with the road between the home and the school house.

Lincoln: For the class: *Abraham Lincoln, the Boy and the Man*, by James Morgan (Macmillan, 1908), or *The Boys' Life of Abraham Lincoln*, by Helen Nicolay (Century Co., 1906). The former is perhaps somewhat better adapted to high-school pupils. For the teacher: By general agreement of the authorities, the best life of Lincoln within moderate compass is that by Miss Ida Tarbell (Doubleday, Page & Co., 1904, two volumes; 1907, the same work in four volumes, richly illustrated).

Lee: For the class: *Robert E. Lee, the Southerner*, by Thomas Nelson Page, (Scribner, 1908). For the teacher: First in importance comes the remarkable series of articles by Gamaliel Bradford, Jr., in the *Atlantic Monthly* for 1910 and 1911, pronounced by one of the leading authorities on American history to be among the finest pieces of historical work ever done in this country; in addition, *Four Years under Marse Robert*, by Robert Stiles (Neale Publishing Co., 1903), and *Life and Letters of Robert E. Lee*, by J. W. Jones (Neale Publishing Co., 1906). Lee finds a place in this list, not merely because he supplies material for training the northern boy and girl in the ability to understand and sympathize with a man whose point of view is different from their own, but still more because he represents as near an approach to the perfect man and the perfect gentleman as any one that has ever occupied a prominent position in our public life.

Garrison: For the class: *The Moral Crusader, William Lloyd Garrison*, by Goldwin Smith (Funk and Wagnalls, 1892); or *An American Hero: The Story of William Lloyd Garrison, Written for Young People*, by Frances E. Cooke (Sonnenschein, 1910). The teacher who has not time to read the great *Story of Garrison's Life*, written by his children (four volumes, 1892) will find the necessary supplementary and corrective material in the life by Lindsay Swift (G. W. Jacobs & Co., 1911).

Washington: *George Washington*, by Horace Scudder (Houghton Mifflin Co.); *The Seven Ages of Washington*, by Owen Wister (Macmillan).

Franklin: *Autobiography* (school edition, Houghton Mifflin Co.).

The school should supply copies of the book in sufficient number to make it possible for each pupil to read the entire biography. Two or three chapters will be as much as can be dealt with in any one period. The study of each chapter may be introduced by the reading of a written outline prepared by a member of the class. The remainder of the hour may be devoted to discussion. The teacher will explain those matters which the pupils did not understand; will make them realize, by the presentation of supplementary material, whatever the book may have left abstract or remote; will see that they form, by means of proper reviews, a definite picture of the life and character as a whole; and will train their practical sagacity and moral insight by setting their minds to work upon the data which the book supplies. Thus in Morgan's

biography of Roosevelt the chapters on Roosevelt as a civil-service commissioner and police commissioner will mean little to our pupils until we lead them to see that what he was doing in each position was to apply the principle of the "square deal" in the matter of appointment, promotion, and dismissal, and make them realize what this meant both to those directly affected and to the public. Illustrated articles from the popular magazines and the weekly papers will enable them to follow Roosevelt with sympathy and understanding in his life as a cowboy and as a soldier. Finally, there is a wealth of suggestion in such statements as these: "He ought to make his mark but for the difficulty that he has a rich father" [said by the family physician to his partner when Roosevelt was twelve years old]; "I have made my health what it is" [said by Roosevelt of himself]; "He could not be a snob because he had been brought up to respect the feelings of others"; "He had gained [in college] that first quality of success, the power to concentrate his interest and attention on the subject in hand."

I (b). (Second Semester). *Contemporary progress*.—This will aim to bring before the pupils some of the more important contemporary movements to make the world a better place to live in, and man a better person to live with. As a part of a course in moral education, however, it will exclude those very important advances which from the outset have promised their promoters an adequate return in money or power, and will confine itself to those which, even though actually followed by such rewards, would never have been undertaken unless public spirit or race patriotism had formed an important element in the sum-total of the motives to which they owed their inception.

The attention of the pupil should be directed to two matters: the object aimed at, together with the means employed, the difficulties overcome, and the like; and the man or men who dared, and planned, and struggled. In order to combine these two phases of the subject into a single field of view, movements which can be at least partially identified with one man are chosen for study. The fact that there were coworkers or independent laborers in the same field must not be ignored, and the lives of some of these may be studied also. But for the sake of awakening and holding the interest of the young student at the time, and leaving him in possession of clean-cut pictures at the conclusion of the course, the personality of the leader must be displayed, and his relation to the general movement emphasized.

The work of the year may best begin with a study of what is being done by the community in which the school exists. From the home town we may pass to our state, thence to the nation, which in the course here planned, will supply the great bulk of the material.

For the sake of convenience, a partial list of the more important movements of national scope is here given, together with the name of some person closely identified with each: the movement for governmental supervision and control of interstate corporations, ex-president Roosevelt; the movement for the conservation of our natural resources, Mr. Pinchot; the progress of our new colonies, especially the Philippines, President Taft; the systematic crusade for the betterment of the public health, Professor Irving Fisher; the fight against communicable diseases, Dr. Walter Reed; the struggle for pure-food laws, Dr. Wiley; the housing of the poor, Mr. Lawrence Veiller, or Mr. Robert De Forrest; settlement work, Miss Jane Addams;

the fight against child labor, Mrs. Florence Kelley; the uplifting of the Negro, Mr. Booker T. Washington; the reformation of juvenile delinquents, Judge Lindsey, and, in another direction, Mr. George, the founder of the George Junior Republic; agricultural education, Dr. Knapp; the beautification of our cities, Mr. M. F. Robinson; improved municipal government, Mayor Whitlock of Toledo. This list would be incomplete without mention of the names of Mr. Luther Burbank and Mr. Louis Brandeis.

The materials for this work can be obtained from the weekly and monthly journals. The following will be found almost indispensable: *The World's Work*, or *The Review of Reviews*; *The Outlook*, or *The Independent*; and, most important of all, *The Survey* (formerly *Charities*). Files of either the first or second, the third or fourth, and the fifth, will be needed, running back, where obtainable, to 1897—the opening of a new era in our national life in more respects than one. The pupil should, of course, be sent directly to these sources, and any others that may be accessible, for his information. One or two members of the class will introduce the topic of the day with a paper; the remainder of the period will be devoted to its discussion.

The specific results that it is hoped to obtain from this course are, first, a realization on the part of the pupil that society is an organism, so that nothing human *can* be foreign to him because nothing can happen which, sooner or later, will not affect his interests, and affect them, oftentimes, profoundly. In the second place, he will discover that much that is best in his own life is the gift of those who have been willing to struggle, sometimes in obscurity, often misunderstood, always, or at least usually, waging a desperate battle against the inertia, prejudice, or selfishness of powerful elements in society. With the awareness of this fact the more generous natures will feel a strong sense of gratitude to these known and unknown benefactors, a determination to place no hindrance in their way, and, in many cases, a desire to join their ranks. Finally the pupil will come to realize, as only a concrete study such as this can make him realize, that there is such a thing as progress, and that the world is slowly growing better. Thus hope will strengthen will.

To produce the best results the insight and enthusiasm of the classroom must lead to present action of some sort; otherwise a demoralizing sentimentality may be the outcome. The ways in which this can be done are numerous. The pupils can be encouraged to earn money for such work as that of the Audubon Society, for the fresh-air fund of the nearest large city, for settlement work, or for some local movement or charity. A still better means would be the formation of a club to work for civic betterment along such lines as are possible to high-school boys and girls.

SECOND, THIRD, AND FOURTH YEARS

The first year in the high school is somewhat experimental. Many pupils drop out before or at its conclusion. Of those who remain the majority, it may be assumed, will graduate. For this reason, and other reasons equally obvious, it has seemed wise that the first year's work should differ, both in content and in method, from that of the three years which follow. The work of this second

period, like that of the first, forms a unit. There is, however, no very abrupt transition from the one to the other.

In the girls and boys who now form the members of our classes we find three characteristics: First, the demand for liberty, with its other side, the revolt against authority. Second, the tendency to reflection. This is intimately connected with the new attitude toward authority. Third, the awakening of the social sentiments. The work of the last three years must be planned with constant reference to these facts.

SECOND YEAR

The immediate purpose of this year's course is to prepare the student for his school life, for the sake, first, of making his school work more effective, and, secondly, because to live this part of his life well will be a preparation and an incentive for right living in succeeding years.

II (a). *The history, character, and purposes of the American school.*—This part deals with the nature and aims of the school of today, particularly the American school. (1) Our schools, with all their inadequacies and mistakes, are the result of much genuine devotion and careful thought. The study here outlined is intended to bring this fact home to the pupil, and thus give him a keener sense of the value of the opportunities which the school offers to him for the mere asking. (2) An examination of the different ideals which are fighting for the possession of the school is, to some extent, an examination of conflicting ideals of life, of which it is desirable that he should become explicitly conscious. One result of this, if no other, may be expected to follow, namely, an increased thoughtfulness about the ends of action. (3) More specifically, this examination of the competing ideals will compel him to face the question, "For what purposes am I in school?" (4) As a consequence of both (2) and (3) he may be enabled to see how intimate is the relationship between school and after-life. This should, again, lead to increased seriousness of purpose.

The ideal of the school should be, preparation for life in the broadest sense of the term. It will be profitable for the pupil to discover what this means. He will find, as he studies the problem, that the ideal is unattainable in its entirety, because of the length of time required for its realization. The practical problem before him—and his teacher—therefore is, "On what principles shall a selection be made?" Every pupil ought to face this question squarely, and think it through as thoroughly as his abilities permit. In so doing he will come upon another problem: "What is the relative importance, in school work, of the acquisition of information and the development of intellectual and moral power?"

In content, and consequently in method, the work forms, as even a hasty reading will show, a transition from that of the first year to that which is to follow.

The following is the program of study that is suggested. (1) The founding of the present system of common schools in the United States. Democracy in education.

Horace Mann. *Life*, by G. A. Hubbell (The Fell Co.); also *Life*, by his wife in his *Collected Works*, Vol. I. See also his *Reports*, in the same. Emerson's *American Scholar* may be consulted with profit. (2) Social education and self-government. Thomas Arnold of Rugby. This is primarily for those schools which have, or plan to introduce, some form of self-government among the pupils. (3) The movement for the education of girls and women. Dorothea Dix and Mary Lyon. See *Life of Mary Lyon*, by Beth B. Gilchrist (Houghton Mifflin Co.). Ida Tarbell on "Women in America," *The American Magazine*, Vols. LXIX, p. 206, and LXX, pp. 70-72 (1909-10). (4) The modern school, other features, with reasons. Education as a function of the state—compulsory and non-sectarian; technically trained teachers; the abolition of corporal punishment; the introduction of the manual arts; of physical education; of industrial education. The following works will be found useful for this and the preceding topics: *The Making of Our Middle Schools*, by E. E. Brown (Macmillan); *The History of Education in the United States*, by E. G. Dexter (Macmillan); *History of Common-School Education*, by Lewis F. Anderson (Holt). (5) Science in the Curriculum. Huxley's *Lay Sermons*, "A Liberal Education and Where to Find It"; Spencer's *Education*, chap. i. (6) The Value of the Humanities. Matthew Arnold's *Culture and Anarchy*, especially the chapter, "Sweetness and Light"; Ruskin's *Sesame and Lilies*. (7) Vocational Education as an Integral Part of the High-School Curriculum. E. Davenport's *Education for Efficiency*, chap. iv, "The Educative Value of Labor," with selections from chaps. i-iii. (8) The Aims of Education: General Discussion. Charles W. Eliot's *Education for Efficiency*, and *The New Definition of the Cultivated Man*, in *Riverside Educational Monographs* (Houghton Mifflin Co.). (9) Educational experiences. "How I Was Educated," a series of articles by prominent Americans in the *Forum*, Vols. I and II; The Education of Darwin, from his *Autobiography* (Old South Leaflet, 194).

II (b). *The management of the mind*.—The second half of the year may be devoted profitably to what may perhaps be called applied psychology. It deals with the management of such powers as the attention, memory, the reasoning powers, and the will, with a view to enabling the student to discover how they may be trained to the highest efficiency which nature has made possible for him. There are serious objections to giving a course in theoretical psychology in a high school. But in the course here conceived theory is reduced to a minimum, being introduced only so far as is necessary for the attainment of the very concrete and practical ends in view. When planned in this way, there is every reason why the hygiene, as we may call it, even of observation and thought should have a place in a course in moral education. In the first place, as those who wish well to their pupils, our aim should be to build up not merely character, but rather a well-rounded personality. In the second place, morality itself, in the large sense of that term, requires breadth and depth of vision just as much as firmness of will and the spirit of self-sacrifice. Thoughtlessness is responsible for as much suffering as downright selfishness. And while it is true that the morality of an action depends upon the intention with which it is done, it is equally true that we cannot rest satisfied with the mere good intention, even when it passes over into action. We want a mind which, in forming an intention, is capable of seeing the situation before it as that situa-

tion really is and in its completeness, which can profit by past experience as the result of possessing an accurate and retentive memory, which can foresee the results of the different courses of action open to it and can trace them out in their various ramifications. We want a mind which can face a situation free from the bias arising from the disturbing claims of personal interest, and which is sensitive to its own inconsistencies, both between ideals and practice, and between the standard of today and the standard of yesterday. These things, an elementary study of certain of the laws of mind and their application to life will help our pupils to obtain. That it can be pursued successfully by high-school seniors, experience has proved beyond a doubt. But it should, if possible, be placed at an earlier point in the high-school course. The students say to their teachers: "Why were we not taught these things before? It would have made a great difference in our attitude toward our school work." The attempt is therefore worth making to introduce this material into the first half of the course. To place it any earlier than is here done would probably mean results so much less satisfactory that they would be far from compensating for the unquestionable advantages.

If a textbook is used, as will probably be the case, it is impossible to recommend anything better than James's *Talks to Teachers on Psychology* (Holt). The chapters in James's *Principles of Psychology* (Holt), dealing with attention, association, memory, reasoning, and habit, will be found, as far as the essentials are concerned, to be entirely intelligible to the teacher, even if he has made no previous study of psychology. The following chapters in Halleck's *Psychology and Psychic Culture* (American Book Co.) will supply useful material for the class: "The Cultivation of Perception" (by this is meant sensory attention), "The Cultivation of the Memory," "Imagination and Its Culture," and "Thought-Culture." Those portions of this book which deal with psychological theory cannot be recommended unreservedly. A little book by Watt, *Economy and Training of the Memory* (Longmans, 1909), contains a good deal of valuable material derived from the experimental study of association carried on in German laboratories. This part of the work would be incomplete without a study of the means of attaining self-control. Here again we are so fortunate as to have an excellent book at our disposal. It is Payot's *Education of the Will* (Funk & Wagnalls), a work which has been translated into over thirty languages. MacCunn's *Making of Character* (Macmillan) contains some excellent suggestions on this and kindred topics. The study of the management of the mind, at least of the intellectual processes, will acquire a new meaning and arouse a new interest if the results obtained are applied to the problem, how to get the most out of the school studies. In attacking this subject both teachers and pupils will obtain much assistance from McMurtry's *How to Study* (Houghton Mifflin Co.), especially chap. v.

THIRD AND FOURTH YEARS

A sufficient preliminary statement as to the subject-matter of the remainder of the course is that it will consist, for the most part, in an analysis of moral situations in order to discover, first, what course of action is right; second, what is involved in the choice of the right and wrong courses, respectively; and, third, how to bring oneself to do the right. The primary aim is the develop-

ment of "moral thoughtfulness," in order to guide the will in its attempts to do right and to arouse and strengthen devotion to the ends recognized as binding. In method, the underlying assumption is, as everywhere in this work, that only those results are of real value to the student which he obtains as the reward of his own activity. There is accordingly to be little or no instruction. The teacher chooses the topic for consideration and sets the specific problems which are to be attacked. These the members of the class attempt to solve as best they can. Only what lies beyond the range of their powers or experience will be supplied by the teacher. It is planned that the questions contained in the next paragraph shall be mimeographed and placed in the hands of the pupils as a guide. The same thing should be done with the more specific questions which are introduced under each topic, an illustration of which is given below under "veracity." The subject to be discussed at any given meeting of the class will, of course, be announced several days in advance, in order to allow due time for reflection upon it. The members of the class will be encouraged to talk over the problems with each other, and especially with their parents. There are cases where work of this kind has led to the first serious discussion about life between the father and the son.

The great majority of the topics which follow may be studied by asking and answering the following questions:

A) What is the right course of action under the given conditions?

B) (What is involved in the choice of the right and of the wrong course, respectively?) What will be the direct and the indirect effects of adopting each of the possible alternatives permitted by the situation, upon the happiness and the character of other persons?¹ What will be the direct and indirect effects upon the happiness and character of myself? How must the possible courses of action be classified with reference to other forms of right- or wrong-doing which I recognize to be such? (For example, much wrong-doing must be classified as cowardice, or lack of chivalry, or "sponging"; much can be shown to be identical with base selfishness or disloyalty—actions for which the normal pupil will already have a healthy abhorrence.) What vices are most frequently confused with the virtue demanded (as foolhardiness is confused with the devotion to duty which calls for courage, or prodigality is confused with generosity)? What are the needs of others to which I have hitherto been blind or indifferent, and the opportunities, within my power, of meeting those needs?

C) (The attainment of the will to do what is recognized as right.) What are the dangers and temptations to which I am especially subjected because of

¹ A careful study of university students, covering a number of years, has shown that the great majority do not think of so apparently obvious effects of a lie or other breach of trust as the weakening of our confidence in our fellow-men as such. Nor has there been found among them any recognition of the fact that we all tend to pass on to third parties the kind of treatment, whether good or bad, that we have received from others.

my circumstances, temperament, tastes, or character? How am I to avoid or to conquer these temptations? How can I guard against their appearance? Why am I often indifferent, or callous, or even positively malicious (for instance, when in a temper)? How may I strengthen or weaken the tendencies in me to good or evil respectively? Is evidence obtainable that success in such a conflict is possible?

The question "What is right?" is about the only one raised in most programs of moral instruction. Our belief is, on the contrary, that this question should be largely kept in the background. Some argument can be found in favor of anything; and the discussion of casuistry problems tends to give the pupil the idea that nothing in the moral world is fixed or certain. We ought, therefore, ordinarily to assume the correctness of the views commonly accepted in our community, and the question "What is right?" should be introduced by the teacher only when such views are plainly inadequate. Where this is the case, some commonly accepted and valid principle should be taken as the starting-point, and the better position shown to be what is involved in a consistent application of it to the case in hand. Thus the newspaper-owner who advertises many of the proprietary medicines—to say nothing of the man who manufactures them—can be shown to be guilty of theft and murder by the simplest reflection upon what these crimes involve. The spirit of service which the community demands in the physician can be shown to be, in principle, equally binding, not merely upon the other professions, but also upon all vocations. It is true that the questions under B) (above) deal, at bottom, with the determination of what is right and wrong. The *why* necessarily involves the *what*. But it makes much difference in its effects upon the pupil whether the teacher begins by treating every question of conduct as an open one, which the pupil is invited to think out as if for the first time in the history of the race, or whether he begins by taking for granted that certain courses of action are right and others wrong, and confines himself to leading his pupils to discover what is the real nature of what they are doing, and what difference it makes whether they do what is right or whether they do what is wrong.

The fundamental presupposition which underlies this portion of our work is that the laws of morality are the laws of social welfare. As a result of the organic nature of society, the welfare of any one individual is inextricably intertwined with that of others, in the last resort with that of the community as a whole, as our pupils can easily be shown, for instance, by a study of the effects of intemperance. Our duty to other persons, accordingly, calls for the same action in the great majority of cases as does the duty we each owe to our own permanent good. Not that the conditions of individual welfare are always and everywhere absolutely identical with the claims of the more inclusive good. The truth is rather that to a gaze which penetrates beneath the surface there is no such violent and thoroughgoing antithesis as is commonly supposed to exist. The claims that other individuals, or society as a whole, have upon us, are thus normally reinforced by the claims of our own true interests. When

interests really conflict, it is our duty to choose the more comprehensive system of goods. But always and everywhere it is the good or harm of some conscious being that is concerned, and loyalty to the right therefore always means, not the pursuit of some will-o'-the-wisp, but devotion to all that makes life happier, richer, and more beautiful.

There is, accordingly, no arbitrary element in true morality. The teacher assumes at the outset the existence of some interest in the welfare of self and others. This he seeks to strengthen and render more comprehensive. Then he guides his students to the discovery of the rules of conduct which, in accordance with the structure of the material world and of human nature, are required for the attainment of these ends. In so doing he is at the same time helping his pupils to determine what conduct is right in the various situations of life, and to see what are the reasons for doing right.

In guiding our pupils we shall not fail to call their attention to certain other facts intimately related with the preceding. Morality, it can be shown, involves will-power, never weakness of will. It involves at least one form of intellectual power, namely, the ability to put ourselves in the place of others. It involves paying back a little of what the world has done for us, so that it becomes a point of honor. It is an exhibition, always and everywhere, of the same spirit which we spontaneously admire in chivalry. And it unites us with the best men and women of our time and of all times in the great work of promoting human progress. Thus morality unites the desire for individual and social happiness, in the ordinary sense of the term happiness, with the desire for perfection of character. We can strengthen as well as guide these desires by bringing them to clear consciousness and exhibiting their relations to the duties of the day.

In the first three semesters of these last two years' work the subject-matter of the course consists of a somewhat systematic survey of the more important duties to the members of our family, to the school community, and to our fellow-men as such, and of the duties of professional and business life. It will be observed that the order of subjects in general and the place of a given duty, such as veracity, in the plan, are determined largely by pedagogical rather than logical reasons. The duties in the home are those of the son and daughter, not of the parents, because interest in the latter subject would be difficult to arouse. The relationship of husband and wife finds, however, its appropriate place in the discussion of friendship and love in IV (*b*). In IV (*a*) it is planned to have the boys and girls work in separate divisions. The subject of political obligations is omitted, because it belongs in the course in civics, now offered in every high school. And although this course is still, in respect of these matters, in a very unsatisfactory condition, the examination of its deficiencies and the problem of meeting them do not fall within the scope of this article. Education in the morality of the relations of the sexes also finds no place in this program. The sole reason for this omission is the fact that the general public is not yet sufficiently enlightened to permit the discussion of this subject in the schools.

LITERATURE.—Adler's *Moral Instruction of Children* (Appleton); Gilman and Jackson's *Conduct as a Fine Art* (Houghton Mifflin); Hyde's *Practical Ethics* (Holt); Mrs. Cabot's *Everyday Ethics* (Holt). The best work on the subject is Förster's *Jugendlehre* (Reimer, Berlin). Unfortunately, those portions of the book which would be of most assistance to the American teacher have not yet been translated into English. Paulsen's *System of Ethics* (Scribner), especially Part III, will prove of great value to the teacher.

THIRD YEAR

III (a). *The moral problems of school life.*—(1) The rationale of the school and classroom laws of punctuality, neatness, silence, industry, and courtesy, and their value to the pupil himself. (2) The care of school property. Ways of co-operating with the school authorities, from the janitor up. (3) Prompting, cribbing, and the use of translations. (4) The problem of rivalry in school work; prizes. The love of excellence v. the love of excelling. (5) Athletics: their place in school life; professionalism; fair play. (6) The management of organizations (the class organization, committees, clubs). For example, may the treasurer borrow for his own use the money of the club or class in his possession and not immediately needed by the club? The rationale of parliamentary law. The nature of business-like procedure. The rights of the minority. Responsibility for the performance of services once undertaken. The opportunities for service. Grafting. How small graft may lead to big. (7) Duties to school-mates *qua* school-mates: that is, forms of possible service. The younger boy (including the problem of hazing). The friendless boy. The shy boy. (8) The bad boy in the school: what to do with him: the attempt to reform him; ostracism; tale-bearing (cf. J. G. Holland's *Arthur Bonnicastle*); the ill-tempered boy. (9) Mutual help as the ideal of the school, and how it may be realized. (10) Loyalty on the part of the graduates, and how it may exhibit itself. (11) To whom we owe it as a duty to make the most of ourselves through our school work.

III (b). *The home.*—(1) The significance of infancy and childhood, and thus of the home. Orphans are now placed, if possible, in homes instead of in asylums. The home is an organism from which we can never entirely separate ourselves. (On the nature of the family see Helen Bosanquet's *The Family*.) (2) The opportunities for helpfulness and kindness in the home. Courtesy and politeness between members of the same family. Cheerfulness. (3) Respect for parents. The problem of our attitude toward parents of inferior education. Stories by Mary Wilkins Freeman; Irving Batcheler's *Keeping up with Lizzie*; Oppenheim's *Dr. Rast*, and *Groping Children* (the latter in the *American Magazine* for January, 1909); Carlyle's portraits of his father and mother in his *Reminiscences*. A study of the cares and responsibilities of our parents. (4) Affection. In what respect it lies within our power, and is thus a duty as well as the richest of privileges. Within limits it is possible to determine whom we shall love and hate by guiding the attention. What are the causes which may lead to mutual dislike among the members of a family? How far are they removable? Misunderstandings and fault-finding. How far may the latter be really due to our own selfishness? (5) Our duties to our parents. Obedience, its rationale and its proper limitations. Success as a duty to one's parents. Our economic duty to our parents. Ways of co-operating with our parents: sharing burdens; the family budget. (6) What brothers and sisters can do for each other, illustrated by Charles and Mary Lamb, the brothers Grimm, "Dan" and "Zeke" Webster. (7) The ideal home, wherein its value consists. General consideration as to how we may approxi-

mate to it. (8) The servant in the house: her work; her life; the difficulties of her position; our duties to the servant.

III (c). *Our fellow-men.*—(A) Duties of special relationships. (1) Relations to dependents, including tradesmen, workmen employed in or about the house: prompt payment; economizing their time. (2) Our benefactors, individual and social. Ingratitude to the benefactors of the state or of humanity, suspicion of their motives on frivolous grounds. The experience of Washington (we here turn to the past to avoid controversy). (3) Evil-doers: those who have wronged us, or other persons, or the community as a whole. The control of the temper; the relation of anger to envy, jealousy, and malice. Forgiveness and revenge.¹ (4) The aged.

B) Duties to all men, as such. (5) "*La petite morale.*" Courtesy, politeness, and all other forms of kindness in social intercourse. Our attitude toward the unattractive and uninteresting; bores. (6) Veracity. (7) Faithfulness to promises and contracts. (8) Regard for the reputation of others, both in the eyes of the community and in our own: the difficulties in judging the motives of others; the bias produced by our own worse feelings; the duty, especially incumbent upon the educated, to suspend judgment in the absence of conclusive evidence. How far it is possible and desirable to carry out the injunction, "Judge not." (9) Respect for property rights. A study of the more subtle methods of stealing. (10) Respects for life. The spirit which leads to murder as exhibited about us in everyday life. The more indirect and common modes of murder (see Ross's *Sin and Society*). (11) Duties of positive service. They may be precisely as binding as the duty to refrain from inflicting actual injury upon others. William of Orange (later king of England) watched a mob kill the DeWitt brothers, when a few words from him might have saved them. He refrained from acting because they stood in the way of his ambitions. (See the opening chapter of Dumas's *Black Tulip*.) Compare his culpability with that of Macbeth. The conditions under which positive service is a duty. Its various forms. The best help is that which helps others to help themselves. "Am I my brother's keeper?" "Who is my neighbor?" (12) The movement for international peace. (13) Enthusiasm for the progress of the race. If time permits it will be found most profitable to discuss the existence of progress and the methods by which progress has taken place. See Tylor's *Anthropology*, or Starr's *First Steps in Human Progress*. (14) The unity of the virtues. All virtue is service, and at the same time means beauty of individual character.

The following illustrative questions on veracity will show how all the foregoing topics may be treated. (1) (a) Is it possible to lie by other means than the use of words, for instance by actions? (b) Can a person lie by keeping silent? (c) By making no statement not in itself literally true, and yet omitting certain other facts in the case? (d) Did the boy lie who came in at three o'clock in the morning, and told his father the next day that he had come in at a quarter of twelve (three being a quarter of twelve)? (e) What, then, is a lie? (2) Is a statement made on insufficient evidence a lie? (3) When we talk, we do so, normally, not to exhibit ourselves as persons

¹ On this subject our pupils will talk cant—perhaps without being aware of it—unless we exercise great care. The belief in the justification of revenge is apparently far more widespread than seems to be commonly supposed. See an article on this subject in the *International Journal of Ethics* for April, 1910. The problem is a difficult one to deal with. Perhaps the best way is to show how men have been softened and sometimes morally saved because expected vengeance was not exacted. For examples see Smile's *Self-Help*, p. 430.

of virtuous characters, but to communicate facts. Is something more required of us, then, than the intention to say exactly what we believe? (4) What are the consequences of a detected lie, in virtue of the fact of its detection, upon (a) the victim, (b) third parties, and in the end the community, and (c) the person himself who lied? (5) Do we, by lying, increase—if detected—the chances that others will lie to us? (6) What may be the effects of a lie, whether detected or not, upon the victim? (7) What upon the agent himself? (8) Does the habit of lying tend to make us unreliable in our statements even when we intend to speak the truth? (9) What are the effects of lying upon our confidence in others? (10) What are the effects of exaggerated statements, known by all parties to be exaggerated (for instance, a person overwhelms you with expressions of his gratitude at some trivial favor)? (11) Does even a justifiable lie—assuming there is such a thing—have any of the bad consequences already discovered? (12) Is a lie ever justifiable? (13) Should we phrase the last question, "May I ever lie?" or should we rather inquire, "Is it ever necessary for me to lie?" and what is the difference between these two formulations? (14) May it be our duty to avoid the appearance of deceit, even when we are not being guilty of any deception? Make some suggestions as to ways in which this can be done. (15) By what devices do people often try to conceal from themselves the fact that they are lying? (16) Why are they often genuinely angry when other persons tax them with lying? (17) Why is it considered a deadly insult deliberately to call a man a liar? (18) What are the most common temptations to lie? (19) How can one avoid or conquer these temptations, and thus build up a truthful character? (This last topic is treated with great ability by Mrs. Ella Lyman Cabot in *Everyday Ethics*.)

FOURTH YEAR

IV (a'). *Vocational ethics for boys*.—(1) The difference between a profession and a trade. (a) A special education based upon a general education higher than the average. The opportunity for the exercise of the highest powers of the mind. The spirit in which the world demands that it be conducted. (b) The clergyman is the interpreter of the unseen world, and may not, without scandal, change his parish merely to make more money. The lawyer is an assistant to the judge in the determination of justice. For this reason he may be disbarred for cause. The physician may not wait to operate until sure of his fee, and he is expected to give his discoveries to the world. In a profession, then, the service rendered is supposed to be one of the motives for rendering it. In view of the above, what other professions must we recognize in modern life? Is there any valid reason why the will to serve for the sake of those served should be required only of members of the professions? Is it because only the educated are capable of having a high sense of duty? What are we to think of the undertaker who refused to care for the body of a boy killed by an accident until assured that he would get his customary profits? What are we to think of a person who would allow another person to drown when he himself could swim? Every vocation involves service, and the obligation to give the best service within our power is just as binding in business as in the professions. Can all vocations be made to afford opportunities for the exercise of the higher powers or the mind? Pride in one's work. (2) Duties to competitors. Fair and unfair methods of competition. (3) Duties of employer and employee to each other. Skimping work. What constitutes a living wage? The right to a living wage and moderate hours of labor. The advantages to the employer of treating his employees well; illustrated, for example, by the results of

the movement of the past fifty years for shortening the hours of labor. (4) The right to bribe a legislative body to prevent "sandbagging." Bribery as treason. (5) Integrity (in all its forms) as a business asset. Success in business is normally due to the co-operation of several factors. Integrity is one of these, because it produces confidence. But because it is only one we can say no more than that it tends to produce success. (See *The World's Work*, I, 534; X, 6437; XV, 9951; *The World To-day*, XV, 852; John Graham Brook's *An American Citizen*; *Life of W. H. Baldwin, Jr.*) The existence of this tendency is obscured by several facts. We hear of the wealthy rascals, but not of those who fail through rascality. Unprincipled men, like Richard Croker or Edward Harriman, have owed their success primarily to what was best in them. Where a result is usually due to a combination of qualities, one of them may often be absent with no apparent diminution in the effect. Nevertheless the effect might have been greater without the absence. Just as Darwin's ill-health certainly lessened his productivity, even though it did not destroy it. (6) Interest in others as an asset in business. (See W. P. Warren's *Thoughts on Business*, First Series, passim; *The Outlook*, LXXIX, 165-66; *The World's Work*, VI, 3520, and XI, 6900; Mathews' *Getting on in the World*, chap. xi, and pp. 319-22; Lecky's *Map of Life*, chap. xv; Emerson's *Conduct of Life*, essay on "Behavior.") (7) The principles upon which a vocation should be chosen. [This may be discussed under "work" in IV (b).]

IV (a"). *Vocational ethics for girls* (by Mrs. Henry Neumann).—We may begin with a discussion of the vocations particularly attractive to women, and the ground of their relative attractiveness. Among your own relatives and friends over thirty, what is the prevailing occupation? The answer is, they are married. Girls may thereupon be made to see that wifehood and motherhood is a vocation. This knowledge may affect both the course of their education and the choice of a vocation before marriage, in that the one period of life may be made a preparation for the other. Thus to some girls the advantages of choosing the profession of medicine or of nursing may commend themselves, as against the profession of law; or, if they wish to become teachers, domestic science may become their choice rather than mathematics. See Oppenheim's *Development of the Child*, chapter on "Motherhood as a Profession." (1) The first and most necessary preparation for motherhood is the care, in girlhood, of the health. Proper foods. Cleanliness. Proper amount—including the avoidance of excess—of physical exercise. Study the Greek athletic life for women. Hygiene of dress. (2) Intellectual education. The ideal education for the girl includes a study of that which will prepare her for her vocation as wife and mother; this both for her own sake and for the sake of others. (3) Relation to the opposite sex. The rational attitude toward boys and men before marriage. The ethics of the conventions. Choosing a mate. What to look for: respect, love, congeniality of tastes, interests, and attitude towards the fundamental problems of life, ability to provide, physical vigor, chastity. Clear recognition that the adjustment of two lives is often a very difficult problem. The keynote of marital harmony is the will, on the part of each, to develop the best in the other. Each must realize throughout that the other is not perfect, like the hero of a novel. All the more must they with mutual effort work toward perfection. Divorce. In view of the literature on this subject read by high-school girls, they need to have clear, clean ideas presented to them upon it. (See Felix Adler's addresses on the subject, published by the American Ethical Union, 1415 Locust St., Philadelphia.) (4) Woman as the spender. Thrift. Women should refuse to buy the output of sweat shop or underpaid labor. The work of the Con-

sumers' League. (See pamphlets published by the League; also pamphlets of the Child Labor Legislation Committee.)

IV (b). *The nature of success.*—We shall find it necessary to begin by showing that it is a mistake to confuse happiness with certain of its external conditions, such as wealth, power, or social position. In opposition to this superficial notion we must point out that, as Stevenson puts it, "to miss the joy is to miss all. In the joy of the actors lies the sense of any action" (*The Lantern Bearers*). The truth of this statement may be emphasized by illustrations from the lives of those who, like Edwin Booth (see his *Life in the Beacon Biography Series*) had "all that heart could wish," and yet were profoundly unhappy. As a prerequisite for any serious study of success, our pupils must be thoroughly impressed with the truth that "few men know how to live. [For] life is the finest of fine arts, [an art that] has to be learned with life-long patience" (Drummond). The main part of our work will consist in guiding the student in a survey of the various elements that make life worth living, in order that he may not, through carelessness, or prejudice due to a hasty judgment, or a dislike for effort, or ignorance of his own latent capacities, ignore any of fundamental importance, and in order that he may be helped in framing for himself some conception of their relative value. This survey will cover such subjects as (1) the pleasures of sense, and amusements; (2) success, in the conventional sense of getting ahead of other people; (3) the glow and high spirits that are the product of perfect health; (4) work; (5) friendship, and love; (6) the intellectual life; (7) the enjoyment of beauty in nature and art; (8) the enthusiasm for moral ideals; and, where practicable, (9) the religious life. It will also include (10) the relation of wealth to the attainment of these different ends.

One of the present authors has attempted to work out a somewhat detailed method for dealing with topics (1) to (5) in a manual in the High-School Series of the University of Wisconsin, entitled *Success*. This may be obtained without charge upon application. (6) and (7) may be dealt with through selected chapters from Hamerton's classic, *The Intellectual Life*. (8) is well treated in the chapter on "Virtue and Happiness" in Leslie Stephen's *Science of Ethics*. It is, however, over the heads of the pupils, and is recommended only for the teacher. The best modern discussions which would be intelligible to high-school students are, after all, those of the eighteenth-century British moralists. Of these they should be able to follow with intelligence and interest Shaftesbury's *Inquiry Concerning Virtue and Merit*, Book II, and Butler's Sermon XI in his *Fifteen Sermons*. Both may be found in Selby-Bigge's *Selections from the British Moralists* (Oxford University Press). For (9) there is Hilty's *Happiness*, translated into English by Professor F. G. Peabody (Macmillan). The book is marred by the assumption, essentially immoral as some of us believe, that the imperfect is worthless. (10) is treated acceptably by ex-President Elliot in the essay entitled "Great Riches." It first appeared in the *World's Work* for April, 1906, was published separately by T. Y. Crowell & Co., and is now incorporated in the collection of essays entitled *The Durable satisfactions of Life*.

THE CONFERENCE HOUR IN THE PITTSBURGH HIGH SCHOOLS

EDWARD RYNEARSON
Director of High Schools, Pittsburgh

The first-year pupils of the Pittsburgh high schools formerly had English (4),¹ algebra (4), ancient history (3), botany (3), and Latin (4) or German (4). Last year ancient history was taken out and a course in elementary science substituted for botany. The three hours formerly given to ancient history were divided among English, algebra, and Latin or German, one period to each.

The essential difference between this and the remaining four periods consists in the one restriction that no assignment of lessons is to be made, no preparation required of the pupils. One night in the week—the night before this special lesson—the pupils are to be relieved of this one study and to feel free to devote their entire time to other branches.

But while the assignment or non-assignment of work is the original difference, a more important one has arisen, due to the possible methods of disposing of this period. In consequence, it has been variously called the conducted-study period, the conference period, and the unassigned-lesson period.

The purpose of this period is threefold: first, to relieve the pupils in the first year from the severe pressure caused by a too heavy schedule, and to enable them to strengthen the courses which they do carry; second, to enable the teacher, by a judicious investment of this free time at his disposal, to inculcate at the beginning right habits of thinking, to develop proper methods of attacking a new topic, and to secure careful and accurate reviews of previously acquired knowledge; third, to afford opportunity for special and individual help in the case of pupils, naturally weak or temporarily disabled through absence or sickness, who need a greater amount of attention than the average of the class.

¹ The numerals in parentheses indicate the number of recitations a week.

The various uses to which the period has been put are not unique in themselves, nor are the methods employed at that time such as would be impossible or inadvisable for other periods. The main point is that the whole period may, week after week, be devoted to that feature or to those features of the work which in the judgment of the teacher will be most helpful to the class.

This new schedule for the first year became operative in September, 1910. After several months' trial all teachers of first-year subjects met to report upon this conference period and to discuss as fully as possible methods and results. Before coming to the meeting each teacher wrote out his experience with the new plan and gave some of the ways in which he had used it. A teacher of each subject was appointed to make a compilation of the uses the different teachers had made of this period. From these reports detailed illustrations may be taken of the different ways in which the conference period has been used.

Perhaps the most obvious use for such a period is for the review of past work. Several departments used the conference period for this purpose. Among these is the Latin department, which uses a device described in the following terms:

If we have been studying lessons with long or difficult vocabularies, or when the study of a conjugation or a declension has been completed, we have a vocabulary match. We give the nominative, genitive, and gender of the nouns, principal parts and synopses of verbs, type and comparison of adjectives, and formation and comparison of adverbs. These matches are conducted in two ways, either by "spelling down," or by "jumping" and then at the end of the period numbering for the next trial. A pupil who stays head two days in succession is on the honor roll and goes to the foot to start up in line again.

We frequently have sentences on the different constructions of the previous week, and after a great many sentences have been given by the teacher, as quickly as possible, each student is asked to make a good English sentence using only words and constructions that can be translated into Latin by the class. One student is asked to read his sentence and another to translate it, if it is a good sentence. If it is a good sentence containing forms unknown to the class, the reader is asked to translate it. At other times the sentences are put on the board for the whole class to translate, and then the work is corrected. The classes have also written original Latin compositions. The sentences were, of course, of the first- and second-reader class, but the classes seemed to enjoy the work, and received a little benefit therefrom.

The German department conducts reviews by returning corrected test-papers and making them the basis of discussion. The following description shows the way these papers are discussed:

I return a test on the subject of prepositions and modal auxiliaries, the work of six weeks. All mistakes have been marked on the paper. I call on a pupil to translate "for whom." If he says *für wem* I ask him to give the list of prepositions which govern the accusative, and also the declension of *wer*; then he corrects his mistake. I call on another pupil to translate "with whom," "against whom," and then "for what," "with what," and "against what." The next phrase, "from it," leads to a discussion and drill on such forms as *dafür*, *davon*, and *daraus*. The third word, *meineswillen*, leads to a review of the personal pronouns, and a drill on the use of a noun preceding the preposition.

In algebra also a similar method is followed.

The second general use to which the conference period is put is the preparation for future work. Under this head the report of the Latin department describes its work as follows:

We have used the additional period chiefly to break new ground. By this I mean we reserve this lesson chiefly for the development of a new topic, for practice in sight-work in translating, or for analysis of advance English sentences. In other words, it is chiefly preparatory in nature. Any necessary memory work, on which such development is based, is arranged for on the previous days. Then, when the class is assembled, we examine and lay out our course for the following lesson or lessons during the week. From one-third to one-half the first-year work in Latin consists of such advance explanation, so that we have been able to use this period advantageously in this way. The recitation is usually by volunteers, and, though no record of marks is kept as on other days, the pupils are quite as ready and interested as with their assigned work.

To be more specific, in vocabulary work we often take up a new vocabulary and read it over, separating stems from endings, and deciding to what declension or conjugation each word belongs and why. When that is decided, we name the model word like which it should be inflected, and mention any irregularity in the inflection. Following this we sometimes decline or conjugate it to fix the forms more surely in mind. After reading a new vocabulary in this way, we translate new sentences containing these words, using the vocabulary freely for reference.

In considering Latin sentences we generally read at sight, calling on anyone to supply forgotten words, phrasing, and pointing out relations indicated by endings. In case of hesitation, guidance is furnished by calling attention to the most important clues to the meaning: the subject, the verb, the object, and the division of the sentence into clauses, as shown by the introductory word

and the verb, or the division into phrases, indicated by a preposition and its object or by two or more words in agreement. Time is saved, and a better chance is given to slow pupils, in this work, if the sentences are assigned and a minute or two given for their preparation, without reference to notes or vocabulary, so that the recitation is prompt. Sometimes we read a short anecdote from the Latin. Each student is given one word for which he is responsible; a moment is given for preparation, so that the new words may be found in the vocabulary and the construction decided upon. Then the story is read in English, each student contributing his word. This keeps the pupils thinking, for no one wishes to break the chain. One week one of the boys brought to the class an original anecdote, entitled "Caesar in London in 1910."

The German department presents new work during this period in the following manner:

When it has been possible, I have given examples involving the grammatical principle and then have had the pupils deduce the rule. For example, when the lesson was on prepositions governing the genitive, I wrote upon the board several illustrative sentences, and the pupils with little explanation readily saw that such prepositions governed that case. Then, after the presentation, I gave a definite time for study, during which I required the pupils to learn all the prepositions governing the genitive and to use them in sentences. Then a short recitation followed, which for the most part was spontaneous and enthusiastic, owing, I think, to the supervised study.

A teacher of English describes the preparation for future work thus:

All my study periods in English have been used in guiding or leading the pupils into a careful preparation of the next day's lesson. With our textbooks open we explore together the new field of work for the following day.

The preparation for new work is very closely allied to what is perhaps the most important use to which such a period as this may be put, namely, supervision of the study of the pupils and attention to their individual needs.

In the German department the teachers without exception have laid special emphasis on the supervision of the pupils' methods of studying. One teacher writes:

"I have had the pupils study, and I have tried to correct their methods of studying. Personally, I feel that the correct method is so different with different minds that the only way to help a pupil is to watch him and then make suggestions for a change. Too many pupils depend on memory and then memorize in poor ways. Even in language the reasoning power should be used. One or two poor pupils have improved their memorizing power by being

required to write their rules, thus joining their eye and motor-muscle impressions to their ear impression. I have tried to have every German study period-typical of how the pupils should study at home."

Another teacher, in training pupils to right habits of study, lays stress upon concentration. The first half of the extra period is to be used as a study period. The teacher assigns a definite amount which he knows can be prepared in a given time. Absolute concentration upon this particular portion of the lesson, along lines which are at first indicated, is insisted upon. The other portion of the study period is then given over to recitation upon the subject just studied. In this way the teacher is in a position to know which pupils must be taught how to study if any results are to be obtained.

A second point kept prominently in mind is the necessity of teaching children how to attack a lesson. The *modus operandi* differs with the teacher and the class. Instruction—direct and by example and suggestion—has been tried. All of the teachers seem to have found the presentation of a new lesson during this special period exceedingly helpful.

The report of the teachers of algebra says:

Occasionally it has seemed best to use the period in taking up new work, in tracing the development of a principle, or in discussing its application. In this manner much good can be done for the pupils by teaching them *how* to study. This is particularly true in concrete problems where ability to analyze and interpret given conditions and relations is of fundamental importance.

The period has often been spent in giving individual instruction to pupils who, from absence, lack of application, or inability, have fallen behind the class. Pupils have frequently requested an explanation of some particular difficulty at this conference period. Sometimes an important type-problem has been given to the whole class for solution at the beginning of the period, and the remainder of the time has been used in clearing up difficulties which have been encountered in its solution. It sometimes happens that explanations can be made advantageously to a group of pupils rather than to individuals. In any case, while the slower pupils are being helped, the better pupils are kept busy at some supplementary work.

A teacher of English gives the following illustration of the training in study which may be given in such a period as this:

"The methods of teaching the pupils how to study vary necessarily with the nature of the lesson to be prepared. Let me give a concrete example: When we take up the study of clearness, I ask all the class to read the first paragraph on the subject, selecting one pupil to read aloud while the others listen. At the close of the reading I have several pupils tell me what they consider the most important points of the paragraph—those points which explain the quality called clearness.

"By pointing out and discussing the leading thoughts of the paragraph, the

pupils learn to discriminate between the more important and the less important points. They learn that much can be gained from even one reading, and that their lessons may be prepared more quickly when they really master the thoughts of the printed page. Thus we spend an entire period discussing the subject in hand, and it is very interesting to see each pupil's mind trying to compete with the other minds in quickness of grasp. The pupils often see the lack of clearness in their own sentences when talking. We are never able to cover the entire lesson assigned for the next day, but the pupils have gone far enough on the way to see the end ahead. With the three essentials, attention interest, and industry, a study period in English may be made a powerful factor in the development of a pupil's mind."

In explaining a conference lesson on American literature another teacher writes:

"With the books open on our desks we begin an outline as a preparation for study. 'American Literature' is taken as the title of the entire outline, and the subject of the first chapter as the first large topic. Taking the chapter, paragraph by paragraph, we give the topics, using them either as topics or sub-topics according to the importance of the contents.

"After much discussion, we decide that the idea of the first paragraph is 'the origin of literature.' From individual suggestions we draw the conclusion that 'the meaning of literature' is the next point. This brings us to the idea of 'English literature,' discussed under the heads: (1) characteristics, (2) growth, (3) divisions. The final topic of the chapter becomes 'causes for difference in British and American literature.' Under each one of these topics are sub-topics. The discovery of the important heads is what the pupil finds most difficult. If we can show him how to decide upon these, and how to attach to them, as minor details, the other ideas of the chapter, we have shown him how to study."

The individual needs of the pupils are sometimes met by the Latin department by dividing the classes.

Sometimes the classes are divided into two sections, those above 65 per cent forming one section, those below, the other. Section I is given lists of sentences previously prepared to be translated into Latin or English, while the pupils of the other section are being drilled on the paradigms and principles of syntax. The last part of the period is spent by the class in reviewing the work of the first section.

This conference period also offers opportunity for emphasis on certain aspects of the work for which there is little time in the regular periods. One German teacher writes:

Training in the pronunciation of German and practice in expressing thought in it are two tasks which are not only the most difficult ones which confront the teacher of German, but also the most important if the study of the language

is to be of use to the pupil. The conference period offers an excellent opportunity for such training. There are many possible methods. Sometimes I read aloud an anecdote taken from the textbook, or from some other book, and have the pupils translate from hearing. Sometimes I give an account of something connected with the lesson; for example, the life of Helen Keller proved interesting on the day the pupils added to their vocabulary the words "blind," "deaf," and "dumb." Sometimes I ask the pupils to describe what they see in the schoolroom or from the schoolroom window. I teach the new word by writing it on the board and explaining the meaning, either by gesture or by familiar German words, rarely by the use of a dictionary. Often a pupil who has difficulty in learning from the printed page excels in the oral work.

The success of the conference hour is largely due to the spirit of co-operation which pervades it. In the words of the representative of the Latin department:

The work of the conference period often differs but little from that done at other periods; but we feel that unless the work is to some extent a pleasure a part of its value is lost, and that variety is likely to add to the interest. We have tried to enliven our uninteresting textbook somewhat by telling or reading a little about the Romans, their houses, and their games, and the education of the boys and girls. Since Roman history has been omitted from the curriculum of the first year, we have tried to give the pupils a little background for the English composition by explaining briefly the terms "consul," "praetor," "republic," etc., which they find in their lessons.

The chief advantage of this extra hour is that it is a free period, within the teacher's discretion for "making straight the crooked ways." Many feel that the pressure of required work and grading robs us of our most valuable opportunity—to give the inspirational forces their true place and value in our work, and to develop those habits of thought and feeling that need encouragement and direction rather than compulsion.

Most pupils are ready to do their part, if their difficulties are met half way and their efforts end in successful achievement. This is a place where teacher and pupil meet on common ground for helpful progress—where the hard imperative "thou shalt" of the rest of the week is replaced by the gentler phrase "we will," and where, measurements and arbitrary standards laid aside, the object of the teacher and the pupil alike is to win an hour ahead in actual progress and understanding.

In speaking of the conference hour in the English department, one of the instructors says:

The teacher has made the pupils feel that this hour is likely to bring out something new and interesting and really valuable as well, so that they come into the English room in a pleasant spirit, and with an air of expectancy which is of itself an inspiration to teacher and pupils alike.

The pupils have been made to understand that what they can think is just as valuable and just as important as is the original thought of any one else, if they can learn to give it adequate and dignified expression. So in preparation for this hour the boys and girls have been thinking, instead of studying, as they usually understand study, and they come to this lesson with a new personal responsibility, and a more serious and earnest attitude toward the work. The creating of this personal interest has perhaps been the secret of the unusual success of the plan in all departments where it has been tried.

From the very beginning of the year I have found that this period is a time when the pupils express themselves most freely and unreservedly, and therefore most naturally. More than once during this period I have been reminded of Emerson's saying, "Conversation is the laboratory and workshop of the student." There seems to be a spirit of unconscious sympathy helping each pupil, and the wish to speak to the want of another mind assists a pupil in clearing his own mind. This general discussion of the lesson is interesting to the pupils because it suggests new ideas to them, and the practice in expressing their ideas improves their language.

After using the "conference-hour plan" for over a year with our first-year classes, the teachers feel that it is a useful and valuable adjunct to the work of the week. It affords a practical and efficient means of helping the first-year pupil to keep up to grade. It combines happily the class and individual methods of teaching. It serves the useful purpose of a general "clearing-house" period for review, drill, discussion of obscure principles, and for personal work with the individual pupil. The pupil understands that he can display his ignorance with hope of enlightenment and no fear of a poor grade for so doing. Hence he does not hesitate to do his part toward making this period a real conference hour. Finally, through intimate personal contact it establishes a feeling of mutual sympathy and helpfulness between teacher and pupil, and obviates largely the necessity of keeping the pupils after school to make up work.

THE STATUS OF GREEK

A. A. TREVER
The University of Chicago

The waning interest in Greek as a staple subject of collegiate instruction is universally admitted by the apostles of culture as well as by the Philistines. The actual extent of this tendency, however, is perhaps scarcely realized even by the classicists themselves. The following results of an investigation made a few months ago may help to arouse the friends of Greek to the real situation, and to suggest the lines upon which the battle must be fought if the passing of the "noblest of the humanities" is to be prevented.

The investigation included twenty-two institutions of college grade in the following states: Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, South Dakota, Iowa, Illinois, and Indiana.

Since the names of the colleges may not be given, a general summary of the results obtained must suffice. We shall present this summary under three main heads: I. Number of students; II. Obstacles to gaining and holding students; III. Greek courses in English.

I. As to the number of students taking Greek, the following facts were obtained:

1) Fourteen colleges have less than twenty Greek students each.

Two colleges have less than ten Greek students each.

Three colleges have large departments, ranging from ninety to one hundred students. In these three, however, special conditions obtain. In two of them Greek is still required for the A.B. degree, while the other has about eight hundred students, an exceptionally large percentage of whom are expecting to enter the ministry. It may be further stated that one-half or more of all the Greek students in these three institutions are in elementary Greek.

Aside from the three institutions just mentioned, only one of the

twenty-two colleges has thirty students in its Greek department. In this college, however, nearly two-thirds of the number are in elementary Greek, and only four are pursuing a fourth year. The investigation also revealed that in this institution Greek enjoyed the moral support of the president and faculty, a condition very rare in the West.

In addition to the two colleges previously referred to, only one institution still requires Greek for the A.B. degree, and in this instance the requirement has not resulted in a thriving department.

2) Ten colleges have no students pursuing a fourth year of Greek, four colleges have only one such student each, while six others have fourth-year classes ranging from two to five students. Thus twenty of the twenty-two colleges have either no fourth-year Greek class or else a very small one, while four institutions do not even secure any students for a third year.

3) Six colleges have no Greek students who began Greek in high schools, and nine others have only one or two such students. Only three of the twenty-two colleges have more than five students whose preparatory Greek was done in the high school, and in nine of the institutions considered, one-third to one-half of the Greek students did not begin the study until the Sophomore year or even later.

4) Seven colleges have had only from 5 to 10 per cent of Greek students in their graduating classes for the past five years; five others have had from 10 to 20 per cent. Even this low percentage, however, is really somewhat deceptive, for it is generally recognized that, for some reason which it might be interesting to consider, Greek students are more likely to continue their course until graduation than are other students. The reports also showed conclusively that the percentage of Greek students in the classes of 1910 was considerably below the average for the past five years. The exact figures on this point cannot be given, as several of the colleges did not report in detail.

5) In six colleges practically no Greek students are pursuing courses in college Latin, and in four others the percentage of such students is very small—not more than from 5 to 15 per cent. On the other hand, in fifteen of the colleges only 10 per cent, or less, of those who are specializing in Latin are taking Greek.

II. The chief obstacles to securing Greek students and to holding them for more than two years were stated somewhat as follows:

- 1) Greek not taught or encouraged in high schools.
- 2) The free elective system and the great multiplicity of elective courses.
- 3) The modern craze for the practical, interpreted by the "bread-and-butter" standard.
- 4) Ignorance and prejudice in home, high schools, and even in college faculties. (More than one college teacher of Greek gives as his reason for the difficulty, "the influence of my colleagues against Greek.")
- 5) The demand for short cuts and snap courses, and the common satisfaction with mediocrity.
- 6) The lack of students to inspire the teacher, making it difficult to interest the classes and to arouse a healthy competition.
- 7) The inherent difficulty of Greek and its disappearance from the high schools. Greek is not given an equal chance, especially with Latin and the modern languages.

III. Fifteen of the twenty-two colleges offer one or more Greek courses for English students, such as Greek literature in translations, Greek art, Greek history, Greek social life, and Greek mythology. The number of students in such courses ranges from five to twenty-five, but the most frequent number reported was about fifteen.

This report of the status of Greek in twenty-two of the representative colleges of the Middle West is certainly not very encouraging to worshipers at the shrine of Hellas. In spite of the awakening of classical teachers during the past decade, in spite of the fact that in most colleges Greek is being taught by improved and more vital methods, it seems almost impossible to hold college students for a fourth year of Greek. Indeed, fifteen of the twenty-two colleges considered have only three students or less in the third year of the language. However, the facts of the report, dark as they appear, serve to suggest the lines upon which we may work to effect an amelioration of the condition.

1. *A determined effort should be made to persuade the college teachers of Latin to take a more positive attitude in favor of Greek.* What is the situation? In many a Western college Greek finds Latin to be its most discouraging competitor instead of its friend and ally. Since Latin is taught in every accredited high school while Greek is found in but few, many high-school students are turned toward Latin and come to college with the purpose of continuing their study in the language. They are further attracted to specialize in it since it offers fair opportunities for high-school teaching. Moreover, the college Latin departments, in the effort to secure as many advanced students as possible, practically require prospective teachers to take so much Latin that it is almost impossible for them to take up Greek. Instead of positively influencing their best students to balance their classical preparation by a knowledge of the Greek language and literature, they often discourage this by demanding all the student's time in Latin, thus producing a narrow and one-sided teacher. It thus results, as the report shows, that only 10 per cent or less of the Latin specialists in fifteen of the colleges are taking Greek. Now the college teachers of Latin must be aroused to the fact that the cause of Greek is their own cause; that in the long run Greek and Latin stand or fall together; above all, that the teacher of Latin in the high school must be circumscribed and visionless in his teaching, indeed that he must fail to appreciate much in the literature, life, institutions and language he teaches, without a fair knowledge of things Greek. It should be needless to remind the teachers of Latin of the truth, already trite to them, concerning the intimate relation of Latin and Greek. It would sometimes seem, however, that they need such a reminder; and at any rate a brief statement of the facts may not be amiss for the uninitiate.

Greek and Latin have a multitude of root-words common to both languages. Their inflections are very similar, as is also much of their syntax. Without Greek the Latinist is utterly unable to explain or appreciate numberless points of etymology, syntax, and inflection, many of which demand explanation, even in the teaching of elementary Latin.

But this is not all. Latin is largely a borrowed literature from Greek originals. Greek literature was the very breath of life to the Roman writers. Vergil had his Homer and Theocritus, Horace and Catullus their Greek lyrists, Cicero his Isocrates, Demosthenes, and Plato, Plautus his Menander, and so on throughout almost the entire catalogue of Latin authors. They were close students of Greek literary style. They imitated Greek models, and their imagination was kindled by a spark from the Greek fire. They copied Greek figures and idioms; appropriated Greek plots in epic and drama; employed Greek rhythms and meters; imitated Greek feeling in their lyrics; parroted Greek philosophy; accepted the Greek orators and rhetoricians as their masters. Indeed, every Roman classical writer drank deep of the "Pierian spring"; and this fact is so evident on almost every page of Latin literature that he who runs may read. Almost every Latin classic can be traced back to a Greek classic of greater genius.

In the face of such facts, what shall we think of a preparation for Latin instruction, even in the high schools, that does not take account of Greek literature, from which the Latin drew not only its inspiration but even the tools and materials for its product? What must be the limitation of that Latinist who cannot look beyond the Latin imitations to the Greek originals? Is it any wonder, when so many of our high-school Latinists are strangers to Greek literature, that much of their teaching is dead and visionless, a mere language-grind devoid of any quickening to the imagination?

But not only are Greek and Latin cognate languages; not only are Greek thought and style so interwoven into Latin literature as to make this often unintelligible without a knowledge of Greek; but the Greeks and the Romans had multitudinous points of contact in life, institutions, and history. Numberless references on the pages of the Latin classics are opaque to him who is a stranger to the civilization whose torch was the light of the Roman world. To prove this one need only turn the pages, haphazard, of any annotated edition of a Latin author. One will find explanatory references to Greek life, institutions, and ideas abundant everywhere.

It is high time, then, that the friends of classical learning begin to demand more unitedly and insistently that our instructors in

high-school Latin shall have at least a modicum of Greek. Every college teacher of Latin, both for the sake of self-preservation and for the sake of vital and intelligent Latin instruction, should insist that every prospective teacher in his department have at least two years of Greek as a prerequisite for a recommendation to teach Latin. Then not only would our college department of Greek be increased by the entrance of prospective Latin teachers, but many high-school graduates would come to college determined to seek out the fountain of Greek genius, whence their teachers drew their inspiration, and it would not be long before there would arise a new impetus to the teaching and study of the classics in the high schools.

2. *The friends of the classics should endeavor to secure for Greek an equal chance with the modern languages.* Under the present arrangement in most colleges Greek has almost no chance at all. The modern languages are so much easier that a student must be entirely unafraid of work in order to choose the much more difficult subject for the same credit. A much fairer method would be that, which is, I believe, in vogue in some institutions, of counting credits instead of hours as the requirement for graduation. Let all the courses of the curriculum be standardized in accord with a certain two or three studies accepted as fundamental. Then some studies, though given the same number of hours a week, will count more credits than others because of their inherent difficulty. Moreover, such a method would do away with one of the great evils of the free elective system—that of seeking after snap courses. Whatever may be said to the contrary, it is still a notorious fact that, by the very nature of the subject, some courses are necessarily harder and require more brain sweat than others, and this in spite of all that the instructor can do. For example, a course in Lowell's poems cannot possibly be made as difficult as calculus or philosophy; sociology cannot demand the time required for the mastery of a course in elementary chemistry; Spanish and French cannot, by any method known to man, be made as difficult as Greek. Indeed, most Greek teachers themselves are offering courses for English students which in no way compare in difficulty with the regular classical studies. The list of examples might be indefinitely lengthened and far more absurd comparisons might

be made, as, for instance, when courses in choral singing, athletics, or kitchen mechanics are given equal credit, hour for hour, with the most difficult courses in the curriculum. The elective system, with all its benefits, must continue to work great evils and unfairness, to students and teachers alike, until it is placed upon a rational foundation by some such method of standardization of studies as the one proposed. The superficial objection that such standardization would be impossible is the answer of the unprogressive and "stand-pat" teacher. Though it would doubtless involve many problems, yet there is no inherent reason why it should be impossible of attainment; and surely the present system should be odious to all college men who seek fairness or intellectual thoroughness.

3. *The teachers of Greek must conceive their subject in a far broader way than formerly.* They must realize that they are set to teach, not a language merely, but a literature and a life. Their business is to keep bright the flame of Greek inspiration in their own breasts and thus to kindle it in others. While conserving carefully the interests of thorough scholarship and linguistic attainment, they must steer clear of the rock of pedantry and mere dry-as-dust language grind.

It is a pleasure to note, as is indicated in the above report, that many of the teachers of Greek in the colleges of the Middle West have awakened to this need. Fifteen of the twenty-two colleges considered are offering courses in one or more phases of Greek civilization for English students; and though in many of the institutions such courses are still new and but meagerly attended, yet this is a step in the right direction. These courses are bound to grow in popularity and attendance, for Hellas has abundant wealth to offer all who are devoted to the ideal. They can, of course, never take the place of a first-hand knowledge of the Greek genius through the language itself. Yet in this day, when worship of the "bread-and-butter practical" has invaded even the temple of learning itself, it were well to dispense freely the diluted wine wherever there is no appetite for the unmixed draught. These courses will not turn the thoughts of students away from Greek and make them think that the study of translations and compilations is enough.

Rather will they open the eyes of the students to the existence of this wonderful civilization to which all modern life owes so great a debt. The students will realize inevitably, too, under competent teachers, the entire inadequacy of the translations and the necessity of a knowledge of the originals, if they would gain the key to unlock those doors of the treasure-house where the costliest gems lie hidden. Above all, giving such courses is sure to quicken the imagination and vitalize the teaching of the professors of Greek themselves, who too often in the past have permitted their great task to degenerate into a mere perfunctory exercise in translation and grammar.

These are a few of the points suggested by the results of the above investigation. Several others might well be considered; as, for instance, just what is the rational basis for giving Latin the preference in high school and college, when, as is generally conceded, Greek has so much more of intellectual wealth to offer the student. However, this and other questions of interest must be left for future consideration. Suffice it to say that the case of Greek is not yet closed, as the Philistines would have it; and it need not be, if only the friends of classical learning will sink all jealousies and get together in the determined attempt to attain such ends as are outlined in this paper.

PROCRUSTES AND MR. VAN DENBURG

WM. McANDREW

The Washington Irving High School, New York

Thank goodness here's a man who stands up and gives the questionnaire a good stinging swat. Joseph K. Van Denburg has written a book on the shrinkage of the classes in the high school.¹ The teachers who answer questions on a blank are ratiocinative rather than observant. Why one girl left the high school was told as follows:

1. By one teacher: Dislike of Latin.
2. By another teacher: Desire to study music.
3. By principal: Ill health (wholly false).
4. By a classmate: Dislike of a teacher.
5. By another classmate: Dislike of biology.
6. By mother: Desire for boarding-school.
7. By father: Wish to go to the country.
8. By the investigator: Uncongenial classmates.

The author after hundreds of tests concludes that the answers to formal questions like this are seldom founded on facts but evince a desire to give an answer like one in a written examination: something to please the examiner.

This is my own experience. Not long ago we were required to canvass the girls to ascertain what vocation they intended to pursue when they left school. If the questions were asked while the section was in the drawing class a large proportion of the girls were going to be designers. If a section was accosted while in the sewing class professional dressmaking claimed a surprisingly gratifying number. The same girls in the presence of the chemistry teachers looked forward to the career of pharmacists. Hidden away down in the bottom of their hearts safe from the reach of any questionnaire was the most frequent expectation: that they were going to

¹ *Causes of the Elimination of Students in Public Secondary Schools of New York City.* (Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 47). New York: Columbia University, 1911. Pp. iv+206. \$1.50.

follow the old-fashioned profession of raising their own babies. As all of our teachers were doing none of that sort of business themselves, the returns paid very scant compliment to the highly useful calling of wifehood.

Mr. Van Denburg outgrew the questionnaire fallacy before he compiled his book. It cost him an enormous amount of labor and a good sum for clerical assistance. He made a four-years' study of a thousand high-school boys and girls. He threw overboard his preconceived theories. He confines his tables and percentages chiefly to facts.

He finds that one-third of the children entering high-school have not been counted as successful in the elementary schools. One-third of all the pupils have suffered from some serious illness before they reached the high school, eighteen per cent suffer from more or less regular headaches. Two girls in nine suffer from this as compared with one boy in seven. One in ten of the boys, one in seven of the girls, wears glasses. Eighty-three pages of matter are devoted to the study of the kind of children we get from the elementary school. If any high-school man is heretical enough to think his school should reverse the traditional usage and be fitted for the children, here is the most definite kind of information. The balance of the book contrasts the students who leave with those who remain.

Frequently the author is confronted with doubts as to the suitability of a high school for children of high-school age. One is reminded of Herman A. Metz's proposition to close the high schools and to use the buildings as places in which the children now in them might be educated. Another New York reformer suggests that only a pestilence carrying off all of us secondary-school teachers will permit the children of fourteen years of age and upward to get what they need.

We have spent many years and some dollars in learning the various departments of the high-school business. It is absurd to expect us to throw our trade away. So we unite into associations, adopt the same brand of system for each school, and if any uneducated person suggests that we are not doing the best for the children of our community we show that we have practically the same

institutions as Boston and Philadelphia. Few argufiers can overthrow logic like that, and so we preserve the eternal verities. High-school students are increasing in number. High schools have always had a very high percentage of failures. "Mortality," like gout, is a fashionable disease. We are so used to it that some of our best headmasters consider it a sign of excellence, as scurvy used to be a mark of royalty. We all know teachers who regard a large number of students failing as a sign of superior teaching.

The layman doesn't understand our doctrine of the survival of the fittest. He delights in following up those whom we have cast out as failures until they appear as Beechers, Lowells, and Edisons. He reiterates in a tiresome way that the whole people is paying us our wages, fathers of dull boys as well as of bright ones. He holds that a child of fourteen is an uneducated person, and if turned loose by us upon society is likely to debase it by just so much as he falls short of the training we propose for the boy whom we retain. Your pestiferous layman refuses to accept our profession of being able to train leaders—wants to have the details of our leadership-courses shown him, and doubts anyway the right of a tax-supported school to confine itself to leaders or, in a democracy, to assume to create an aristocracy of learning.

I fear this Van Denburg, schoolmaster though he be, has much of the layman heresy in him. He tabulates ten thousand circumstances involving his thousand high-school students. He shows what effect age has upon persistence in school; he studies the result of headaches and wearing glasses upon school success, and how the girls of English-speaking parentage are left behind in studies by the foreign-born. The boy who thinks he knows what life-work he will follow lasts only a trifle better than the happy-go-lucky chap who doesn't know. More than three-quarters of the leaving pupils go before a quarter of the course is finished.

Again comes up that bothersome query, What are the high-school courses based upon, the needs of the students or the high school's fondness for tradition? The author cannot find backing for our favorite statement that the "failures" are not mentally able to do the work assigned. He thinks there may be something wrong with the work itself or (sh!) with us. The attractiveness of

high-school membership and the interest in the studies for their own sake do not win a high place as shown by the statistical tables. The desire for a diploma as an asset of advantage is appraised through interesting and ingenious tables.

In the discussion of "early promise" and comparisons of ability and industry with results the author discloses the sinful waste of time and money due to our crude and defective high-school system. If survival of the fittest, sifting out the dross from our aristocracy of learning, be the purpose of the high school, its separation of the unfit is a stupid and a clumsy performance, protracted long beyond the time when who the unfit are can be discovered. If the education of the children of the people is what we are for, then we are about as inefficient a lot of workers as one could well imagine. If our business is chiefly to set out a feast and let who will, come nibble, and who will, sit out all the courses, there is nothing in this volume to impugn the success of our scheme.

There will be those who will rejoice to find in Mr. Van Denburg's book, only a small part of which I have here touched upon, material for repeated readings, bases for extensive revision of the whole high-school procedure with the purpose of luring to work every child of fourteen in the district and centering upon him and his interests, upon his needs and possibilities, the administration of the school. There will be those who find suggestions for trying any sort of exercise, untrammelled by false proprieties, until the high-school lad's appetites are aroused and the advantages of training are sufficiently plain to hold the confidence of himself, his parents, and the community.

It is a Utopian dream; but our present high-school absurdities are a nightmare. Procrustes would find no fault with us. As much cannot be said for the ordinary man who reads Mr. Van Denburg's book.

TEACHERS' EXTENSION SCHOOLS

G. A. BRICKER
Ohio State University

New facilities for extension teaching have been made possible since the appearance of Bulletin No. 3, 1911, of the United States Bureau of Education, by Professor William Carl Ruediger, entitled, *Agencies for the Improvement of Teachers in Service*. This new aid comes to all states alike from the federal government. Conditions were ripe in Ohio for making immediate use of this new aid, and the way in which it was used is set forth in the following paragraphs.

The "Nelson Amendment" (34 Stat. L. 1381), approved March 4, 1907, and effective for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1908, provided for increasing, at the rate of five thousand dollars a year for five years, the funds appropriated by the federal government to the several states and territories for the support of the colleges of agriculture. A proviso in this act makes it permissible for the land-grant colleges to devote a part of this twenty-five-thousand-dollar increase "for providing courses for the special preparation of instructors for teaching the elements of agriculture and the mechanic arts."

Until recently the funds derived from this source were permitted to be used by a land-grant college for the purpose stated on the campus only. On November 2, 1911, the Attorney-General of the United States promulgated the following rulings in reference to the use of the Nelson fund:

No part of the funds received under the provisions of the acts of 1890 and 1907 may be used for any form of extension work, and all instruction must be given at the institutions receiving these funds, except that a reasonable portion of the funds provided by the act of 1907 may be used for the instruction of teachers in agriculture, mechanic arts, and domestic science at summer schools, teachers' institutes, and by correspondence, and in supervising and directing work in these subjects in high schools.

All or a part of the funds provided by the act of March 4, 1907, may be used "for providing courses for the special preparation of instructors for

teaching the elements of agriculture and mechanic arts." It is held that this language authorizes expenditures for instruction in the history of agriculture and industrial education, in methods of teaching agriculture, mechanic arts, and home economics, and also for special aid and supervision given to teachers actively engaged in teaching agriculture, mechanic arts, and home economics in public schools. It does not authorize expenditures for general courses in pedagogy, psychology, history of education, and methods of teaching.¹

In each state, therefore, there exist the financial means for carrying on teachers' extension schools in agricultural education through the initiative of the land-grant colleges, if only the governing bodies of these institutions desire to apply a portion of the Nelson fund for this purpose.

During the present school year a plan for carrying on teachers' extension schools for the training of teachers engaged in active service, in the elements of agriculture and the methods of teaching the same, is being worked out experimentally by the writer under the auspices of the College of Education of the Ohio State University. A school was started at Circleville, Ohio, in connection with the bi-monthly session of the Pickaway County Teachers' Institute, October 28, 1911, for the purpose of instructing the teachers of Pickaway and adjoining counties in the elements and the pedagogy of agriculture. As soon as the rulings of the Attorney-General were made known, money from the Nelson fund was at once applied to help defray the expenses of this school. Doubtless this was the first school of its kind in the United States to use Nelson funds for the training of teachers in service. On January 13 and 20, 1912, similar schools were begun at Mt. Vernon and Van Wert, Ohio.

For the benefit of others who may institute similar plans a brief description of the organization and management of these schools will be given.

The first step is the appointment, by the professor in charge of the teachers' extension school work, of a local leader, known as the Chairman of the Executive Committee, who will work to create sentiment for the proposed school, present the plan to the teachers

¹ See pp. 11, 12, of the United States Bureau of Education bulletin of 1911 entitled *Federal Laws, Regulations, and Rulings Affecting the Land-Grant Colleges of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts*.

in their meetings and elsewhere, and secure from them pledges of attendance. In the meantime brief articles on the nature and purpose of the school are sent out from the University to all the newspapers published in the county where the holding of the proposed school is contemplated. Invitations to become members of the school are also sent to all the teachers of the county. The local leader is furnished with pledge cards upon which to secure the names and addresses of the teachers who pledge attendance. When fifty such pledges are secured, the cards are filed with the College of Education, and the teachers' extension school is granted to the county or community seeking it. The sessions are held in the town most easily accessible to the majority of the teachers—usually the county seat.

A membership fee of twenty-five cents, payable at the first meeting, is required of each member, and the sum thus realized is used by the Executive Committee to defray the local expenses of the school. All other expenses—the salary of the instructor, and his railroad and hotel expenses—are assumed by the University.

The complete organization of the school is affected at the first meeting, at which time the fees are paid and the membership cards issued. Each school requires at least four officers besides the University professor in charge of the school, who exercises general supervision over its educational activities, and the chairman of the Executive Committee. These officers are a secretary, a treasurer, a librarian, and a doorkeeper, who together constitute the Executive Committee. The Executive Committee has general charge of the local business matters of the school.

A Press Committee is also usually appointed by the chairman of the Executive Committee. This committee furnishes brief reports, to the local press concerning the instruction and the progress of the school.

The school is divided into two classes, A and B. This division is made in order to reduce the number of books necessary for one school. There are two sets of books, one set on the teaching of agriculture and the other on the content-matter of agriculture. At the first meeting references in the first set of books are assigned to class A, and references in the second set to class B; at the second

meeting, the sets of books and the references are interchanged. A new assignment of reading is made at the third, and thereafter at each odd-numbered meeting. The members of the school may or may not read the assignments, just as they choose. Experience has shown, however, that in the majority of cases the reading is done. The members are given to understand from the outset, that each individual will derive benefit from the school in the direct ratio of his efforts in the work. Incidentally, the division into classes affords the basis for creating a healthy rivalry between the classes, which may often be used to good advantage.

The equipment of the school is very simple. A room in which to meet regularly must be provided. Large schoolrooms and high-school assembly rooms have been found very satisfactory for this purpose, especially where there are a sufficient number of individual desks upon which the notebooks, the agricultural materials, and the simple apparatus may be placed. The commodious blackboard of the schoolroom will also be a welcome feature. The agricultural materials are brought to the school mostly by the teachers from the farms in their school districts. The simpler apparatus needed is provided by the Executive Committee, while the more expensive apparatus is brought to the school from the University by the instructor. In Ohio the Traveling Library Department of the State Library was especially courteous and helpful in furnishing a selected list of textbooks for reference reading.

The sessions are held on Saturdays, there being two meetings to each session, one in the morning and one in the afternoon. The meetings are usually an hour and a half to two hours long. The sessions may be held on consecutive or on alternate Saturdays, the latter plan being found the better. When the alternate-Saturday plan is used, one instructor may conduct two schools at the same time. These schools in Ohio continue for six sessions, but there is no special reason why they may not continue for a longer period.

The aim is to make the instruction given in these schools so practical and definite that the teachers in attendance may use in their schools during the two intervening weeks the materials and methods given them. That the teachers appreciate the oppor-

tunity thus afforded them will be seen from the fact that the enrolment in the first school, held at Circleville, was sixty-two, and several of the teachers attended the school at a personal expenditure of over five dollars. At Mt. Vernon the enrolment was seventy-two on the first day, the rural teachers braving the severe cold of a morning when the mercury stood 15° below zero. The school at Van Wert enrolled eighty-eight on the first day. The total enrolments of these schools reached one hundred and eight and one hundred and twenty-five respectively.

The teachers' extension school is full of possibilities. By enlarging its scope through the presentation of additional subjects, it might well become a worthy successor of both the teachers' institute and the reading circle. By supplementing the available Nelson fund with the sums spent in carrying on the institute and the reading circle, a teachers' extension school might be carried forward on alternate Saturdays throughout the school year with far greater advantage and benefit to the teachers concerned. Again, it would be possible to reach the children in the public schools more effectively with authentic information and approved methods of teaching. Through a school of this kind, attended regularly by fifty teachers, each of whom had twenty pupils, it would be possible to reach one thousand children immediately, directly, and efficiently. The surprising thing is that this method of preparing teachers who are in active service was not long ago instituted. It is to be sincerely hoped that more help from this source may be expected in future years.

DISCUSSION

THE CARD INDEX FOR TEACHERS

The card-index system of records is too little known to teachers, but should prove particularly serviceable to them. Educators are notoriously conservative, and for the most part yet retain antiquated methods of recording the progress of their pupils. The classbook, which is still in almost universal use, is far inferior to the index card.

The ordinary classbook has a column on the left-hand side of the page for the names of the pupils; and to the right, covering two or more pages, there follows a crosshatch arrangement of squares in which the attendance and recitation marks are noted. The most important disadvantages of this method are three in number. First, there is not space enough to set down anything but a few arbitrary symbols, which cannot convey an adequate idea of the pupil as an individual. Second, to consult the pupil's whole record it is usually necessary to turn over one or more leaves of the book. Third, and most important, the method does not permit of convenient indexing. If, at any time after the school term is over, the teacher desires to find the record of a particular pupil, he must first recall the year in which the pupil studied, or else look through perhaps a considerable number of classbooks for the sake of finding the right one.

The card system involves the use of a separate card for each pupil. Consequently it has none of the disadvantages mentioned above. Cards can be used of a size adequate for recording any amount of information about the pupils. The whole record of the pupil for the entire course can be seen at a glance. Finally, the cards permit of convenient indexing, so that access to the card of any pupil can always be had at a moment's notice.

The design of the card depends of course on the particular purpose it is to serve. The accompanying illustration shows a card in use by a teacher of English composition in one of the large universities. The blanks at the top are filled in by the student at the beginning of the semester. The date fixes the time at which the course is taken. "Where prepared" indicates the preparatory school. The dates of birth, etc., enable the teacher to form an idea of the degree of maturity of the pupil and his success in completing the high-school course in the usual time; also to ascertain whether there was an interval between his leaving the high school and entering the university.

The other blanks are for the teacher to use. Those at the left, numbered 1 to 50, are for recording the essays which the pupil writes; here may be noted the quality of each composition and any prevailing fault or merit. The cross-hatch lines at the right afford space for recording the student's daily attendance, recitations, etc. It will be noted that the ordinary classbook comprises

BOOK REVIEWS

The Educational Views and Influence of DeWitt Clinton. By EDWARD A. FITZPATRICK. (Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 44.) New York: Columbia University, 1911. Pp. xi+157. \$1.50.

Autobiography of Edward Austin Sheldon. Edited by MARY SHELDON BARNES. With an Introduction by ANDREW SLOANE DRAPER. New York: Ives-Butler Co., 1911. Pp. xii+252.

In both city and state educational affairs there is now great need of wide vision and good sense. The tendency toward division of labor in matters of administration and organization limits the horizon, and it is very possible that serious mistakes will be made in some of the reconstructions now under way for lack of acquaintance with the larger ranges of thought of the thinkers and doers of past generations.

Massachusetts and New York are the states whose educational influence and records have been of most service. Various attempts have been made to make clear the significance of Horace Mann and other leaders in the former state. In the latter, Andrew D. White's autobiography has helped to make clear several important chapters, notably those centering in the work of Ezra Cornell. Much has been organized in various ways by the present state commissioner of education, Dr. Draper, and it is interesting to note that he has written the introductions for both the books here under consideration.

In the case of the work on DeWitt Clinton, Dr. Draper makes this remarkable statement:

"I have, of course, read much in the history of New York education, and have not been wholly ignorant of the obligations under which it lies to DeWitt Clinton, but it involves no humiliation to say that I have not heretofore appreciated the many-sidedness of his persistent activities for the intellectual progress of the state. I knew what he had said, many times and forcefully, in his state papers as governor, but I had too much of the feeling that he had said it perfunctorily and because it was good political policy to say it. This was natural enough, as things ordinarily go, but Mr. Fitzpatrick's study shows that it was very unjust. The evidence here brought to light and assembled in a very systematic whole shows that at all times and places he worked sagaciously and incessantly to advance the moral and intellectual progress of his people, and, wholly apart from the other large things he did, is entitled to rank among the very first educational propagandists of America. . . . He is entitled to a yet higher place in our history for what he did for learning than because of what he did in the building of the Erie Canal, with which his name has been most conspicuously identified."

Conditions in New York state from 1783 to 1805—physical, social, and educational—are clearly stated in Part I. Parts II and III are given to "The Educational Views of DeWitt Clinton and Their Significance" and "The Influence of DeWitt Clinton and Its Significance."

The comprehensiveness of Governor Clinton's view is remarkable. He is concerned with the training of teachers; supervision; the education of women, Indians and Africans, defectives, juvenile delinquents; the enrichment of common-school education; professional, military, agricultural, and technical education. He also recognized that "social inheritance is transmitted not only by the formal educational agencies where there is this conscious effort on society's part, but also in the less formal institutions." "DeWitt Clinton's fundamental conception of education is the current sociological one. It regards education as the salvation of mankind, as the means through which society will set about consciously to improve itself, as the absolutely indispensable foundation to democracy." "In no other writer of the period, with the possible exception of Jefferson, is there so decisive, clear, and convincing a statement of the underlying sociological conceptions, as in DeWitt Clinton. In no other writer, without exception, are the implications of this conception so clearly and fully conceived and so forcefully expressed."

The chapters on the influence of Clinton are illuminating and encouraging. It is well to know to whose efforts we owe the inheritance we are so much inclined to take as a matter of course.

Dr. Sheldon's contributions have been of a very different nature, yet of great significance. Oswego has been the most important center of Pestalozzian influence in America. Following the beginnings in state normal schools already made, it laid stress on the training school. From its direct work came the training schools of Boston, Worcester, Cincinnati, Indianapolis, Cleveland, Dayton, Davenport, Detroit, and many other cities, and its graduates have made a great part of the success of such institutions as the Cook County Normal School under the leadership of Colonel Parker. The foundations of the primacy of Indianapolis among public-school systems was laid by the far-sighted policy of Superintendent Shortridge, who made the Oswego school his base for training teachers.

The early chapters of Dr. Sheldon's autobiography might well be published separately to be used in schools. They give a clear view of "The Pioneer Farm Boy's Occupations and Interests," "Other Farm Industries," "The Domestic Life of the Boy on the Farm," etc. No less interesting are the accounts of school and college life and of the founding in Oswego of the "Ragged School" in 1848. The most valuable sections, however, begin with those which tell of Dr. Sheldon's work in organizing the free schools of Oswego and his frank statements of the means he used to organize an effective "machine" in the school and to secure and train good men on the school board. Instead of lamenting "politics," this superintendent tried to show that there can be good politics as well as bad.

The great contribution comes in 1861, when the Oswego Training School for Primary Teachers was organized. This became a state institution in 1863, and continued during Dr. Sheldon's lifetime to be the center of his activities. There are suggestive chapters on various phases of the school's development and on Dr. Sheldon's "Relations with Colleagues," his "Personality as Teacher and Friend," and "The Political Side of Dr. Sheldon's Career." The concluding sections are "Review and Reminiscence," by Mary Sheldon Barnes; "Unification in the State of New York," by Dr. E. A. Sheldon; "Life and Character of Dr. Sheldon," by Dr. Charles R. Skinner; and "Reminiscence," by Herman Kruse.

Dr. Fitzpatrick recalls Governor Fenner's remark, on calling Henry Barnard to Rhode Island, that it is better to make history than to write it. The time has come,

however, when that which has been made deserves more adequate record than has been given it. Apart from the general work of Boone, Dexter, and others, and some miscellaneous pamphlets issued by the Bureau of Education, we have had in late years W. S. Monroe's *Pestalozzianism in the United States*, Miss Vandewalker's *Kindergarten in America*, and a work on *The New Harmony Movement* as evidence of the material available. We need studies and records of such movements as the St. Louis School of Philosophy, the Herbartian-and-beyond group which came out of the Illinois Normal, and the formation days of the Indianapolis system. It is to be hoped that these works on Clinton and Sheldon will stimulate the interest and activity of men and women near enough to original sources to meet these needs.

FRANK A. MANNY

BALTIMORE TRAINING SCHOOL FOR TEACHERS

The Tudor Drama: A History of English National Drama to the Retirement of Shakespeare. By C. F. TUCKER BROOKE. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1911. Pp. xii+461. \$1.50.

The title on the cover of this book is particularly happy from the point of view of the literary historian; it lends the clarifying service of a phrase to the historic unity of the matter within. "All that is most characteristic in the development of the English theater," says Mr. Brooke, in his introductory paragraph, "falls easily within the one hundred and eighteen years of their [the Tudors'] dominion." This unity is, no doubt, a commonplace of criticism, and Mr. Brooke's grasp of it in the large would not be notable if he had not been so clarifying in his organization of the intricate mass of diverse material he has had to deal with. The great service of the book is that it makes the reader confess, as he lays it down, that his earlier sense of that unity *was* commonplace. Eleven of the twelve chapters deal with distinct types of drama of the period, their historic growth, and their modifications under classic, mediaeval, and contemporary influences. The classified bibliography after each chapter, the full table of contents with page references to successive topics, and the complete index at the end, make it an invaluable book—in whose hands?

The book is a product of thorough workmanship. If it had failed in what it had set out to do, the immediate provocation to the reader or critic would have been to point out its shortcomings, chasten the author with exemplary corrections, and have done. The present work, however, is so admirable of its kind, that it challenges the larger question of the particular values of the kind itself. Its kind is the scientific literary history. There is a tendency today to decry such literary labor as arid, divorced as it must be from human interest and immediate human significance. Much of this criticism is based on a failure to make a proper distinction.

The type characteristic of the scientific literary history is in general the most exhaustive care and accuracy in discovering and setting forth all the available documentary matter concerning the literature in question. It does not attempt to deal with the ideas of that literature, their truth or falsity, their human worth or worthlessness. It does not attempt to set forth ideas of its own concerning human life. Unlike literary criticism, it does not attempt to clarify ideas and build them into the cultural tradition by virtue of their relation to literature already a part of that tradition. It attempts only to put the literature with which it deals as accurately as possible in a historic milieu.

Mr. Sidney Lee's *The French Renaissance in England* is a type of it. The Renaissance, we are in the habit of thinking, was, in essence, the rebirth of Greek thought, showing once more its eternal power to orient the chaos of men's outlook upon life. There was intoxication in those ideas; they swept men and nations into brilliant excesses. If we should read Mr. Lee's book with the hope of revivifying our sense of the power of that thought, we should come away doing Mr. Lee an injustice, believing his sense of the Renaissance to have been, that in France it consisted largely in writing couplets, and in England, largely in making unacknowledged imitations of them. For the matter of the book is the exhaustive repetition of a theme of which this may serve as an example:

"Marot's appeal—

Escoute un peu, de ton vert cabinet,
Le chant rural du petit Robinet—

sounds oddly in Spenser's rendering:

Hearken awhile from thy green cabinet
The rural song of careful Colinet."

Such criticism, however, would be unfair to Mr. Lee. He was not trying to deal with the Renaissance literature in its relation to human life, nor with the rebirth of clarifying ideas. His only purpose was to make a statistical presentation of certain external parallelisms and imitations in the literary documents of a certain period that happens to have been called (for, to him, irrelevant reasons) the Renaissance. Scientific literary history makes no pretense to concern itself with the human significance of the material with which it deals.

To compare Mr. Brooke's volume with Mr. Lee's is, in one respect, not quite fair. Both books belong to the same class; both deal with documents rather than with humanity: but *The Tudor Drama* is written in a style immeasurably better than that of *The French Renaissance in England*. Documents and statistics may be dry, but they have to be dealt with by somebody, and there are ways of dealing with them that go far to relieve them of the worst of their dryness. They can be talked about with urbanity and liveliness of spirit, and they can be organized into clarifying relationships. Both of these virtues exist in Mr. Brooke's treatment, and will make *The Tudor Drama* a valuable book in the hands of the student interested in the technical aspects of the dramatic history of the period.

SHERLOCK B. GASS

THE UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA

High-School Exercises in Grammar. By MAUDE M. FRANK. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1911. Pp. viii+198. \$0.75.

The problem which presents itself in the preparation of a high-school text for the review of English grammar is that of securing brevity with adequacy of treatment. The question of interest, primarily the teacher's problem, depends, so far as the text is concerned, upon the subject-matter employed for purposes of analysis and upon the lucidity of presentation. Grammar review, even at best little less than drill-work, must ever be regarded as the bane of teacher and pupil alike. Imposed as a penance for past neglect, it must remain a subsidiary subject, taught with all the rigor of concentration and economy of effort that belongs to intensive study.

The present book is well designed to teach the forms and constructions of the language with the least expenditure of time and energy on the part of the student. This text consists of twelve chapters, into which are compressed the definitions and the applications of the laws of grammatical relation, affording not only a review, but a further development of the course taught in the elementary school. Compactness of treatment, together with comprehensive range, is secured by the method of relating the different topics by means of cross-references. Rich in illustrative material and in exercises for analysis, the manual is never a mere rule-book for cramming purposes. The chapter devoted to words employed as different parts of speech and to miscellaneous examples for advanced work is well calculated to foster a live interest in the function of language. On the whole, the book ought to meet the requirements of a high-school course in grammar as adequately as any text that could be devised.

New Composition and Rhetoric for Schools. By ROBERT HERRICK and L. T. DAMON. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1911. Pp. 508.

A comprehensive review of the new revision of a textbook so well known as is Herrick and Damon's *Composition and Rhetoric for Schools* would be a thankless task. The many teachers who have found the original text well suited to their needs will welcome *New Composition and Rhetoric* with increased approbation; while those who objected to the general arrangement of the earlier book, and regretted the absence of a more formal treatment of the kinds of discourse, will find the later text serviceable by reason of a readjustment of parts and a somewhat more suggestive presentation of the various types of discourse. The present arrangement, for example, includes the chapter on grammar in Part I, so as to furnish early opportunity for review, and presents the elements of composition so as to afford progress from an elementary to an advanced treatment of the whole composition, the paragraph, and the sentence, reversing the order of the elements in the more advanced stages of study.

The author's insistence upon the sentence and the vocabulary as the primary units of style is open to the objection that both are too fragmentary, whereas the paragraph, more serviceable than the essay because less cumbersome, as a structural unit, is, it would seem, best adapted to study, its limits being "the greatest consistent with simultaneous comprehension." The lesser articulations of structure—that is, the sentence and the elements within the sentence, and the minutiae of composition generally—find their justification, not as entities in themselves, but as structural units of a larger organic whole. Expression is primarily a matter not of sentence-units, but of the development of thought-units progressing through a coherent sequence of ideas. The student's inability to grasp structural unity is probably due, in large measure at least, to the practice of centering attention upon word and phrase groups rather than upon paragraph or topic groups. It should be added, however, that the emphasis laid upon the sentence and the word represents the authors' conscious endeavor not to neglect what they regard as essential in acquiring command of English. The English sentence and the English word first attended to, the authors give due attention to the paragraph and the essay groups.

The exercises supply much fresh material for teacher and pupil to work with, and the illustrative selections are suggestive and interesting. Taken as a whole, the *New Composition and Rhetoric* is characterized by simplicity and lucidity of presentation, orderliness in organization, and comprehensiveness in treatment.

Argumentation and Debate. By J. V. DENNEY, C. S. DUNCAN, and F. C. MCKINNEY. New York: The American Book Co., 1910. Pp. 400. \$1.25.

The college instructor whose business it is to teach argumentation, either as a branch of rhetoric or as the art of debating, will welcome an opportunity to examine this new text. Like all books of a similar character, this text has its peculiar merits and its peculiar defects. As a ready-reference text for both student and instructor it possesses superior worth. It presents the various aspects of argumentative theory in a condensed form, and contains a wealth of illustrative material. Furthermore, the exercises that supplement each chapter are suggestive and practicable, while the "selections" which comprise Part II are well adapted for analysis and briefing. The emphasis placed upon the legal point of view in handling evidence should prove effective in teaching the student to exercise great care in the management of his arguments. In general, it may be said that the authors have wisely guarded against the pedantry of attempting an exhaustive treatment, without sacrificing too much that is essential in the study of constructive theory. It is this very commendable aim, however, that has given rise to such slight defects as the book contains.

In the first place, the treatment may be regarded as somewhat fragmentary, both as to chapter divisions and as to the organization of the subject-matter within each chapter. In working for brevity the authors have sacrificed a certain coherence of structure, a circumstance which is apt to be a trifle disconcerting to the student who must find his own way through the text. The one hundred and six pages devoted to the theory of argumentation read much like a compilation of excellent lecture-notes, with omissions a-plenty to be supplied by the lecturer as occasion demands. The rhetoric of argument, for instance, is treated in a scant eight pages in the very last chapter, while three chapters, comprising sixty-one pages, more than half the text, are devoted to "evidence" and the "modes of reasoning." Skillful presentation of arguments involves something more than the ability to test inferences and evaluate evidence; it comprehends a thorough knowledge of organization—a clear perception of the function of each of the rhetorical divisions in a completed piece of reasoning, and a mastery of the principles which enable the debater to determine, in any given case, how best to adapt his discourse to the requirements of the occasion.

In the second place, it is to be doubted whether, in their endeavor to meet the practical needs of the debater, the authors do well to set up the principles of logic as the final test for the validity or the invalidity of arguments. The basis of an inference, at least in matters involving divergent opinions, is almost never the premise of a syllogism. Every judgment rests ultimately upon a ground of inference so complex in character as to baffle any attempt to phrase it adequately within the limits of a single generalization. The machinery of logic is here serviceable merely to discover the necessity of a closer scrutiny of the tangle of so-called "facts" that lies back of belief, not as a trap to catch the unwary. If it be granted that the real purpose of a course in argumentation is to develop the student's critical faculty in forming opinions rather than mere skill in controversy, then any considerable dependence on the machinery of logic is likely to foster sophistication at the expense of candor.

Though it is to be regretted that so excellent a text does not present some of the broader considerations of the ideal function of argumentation, together with a more comprehensive analysis of the organization and the development of a piece of argumentative discourse, the authors have succeeded admirably in what was doubtless

their primary purpose—to furnish a useful handbook for an inductive study of the art of debating, without overburdening the student with the dreary abstractions of rhetorical theory.

Essentials of Exposition and Argument. By WILLIAM TRUFANT FOSTER.
Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1911. Pp. vi+244. \$0.90.

This work supplies a long-felt need in secondary schools—a text that reduces to a minimum the usual difficulties attending the teaching of exposition and argumentation. The author's purpose is to teach the student how to work for himself. Aside from lucidity of presentation, the treatment is characterized by logical organization based upon sound pedagogical principles. The student is encouraged to employ the principles of critical analysis in his own thinking about subjects that are easily within the range of his own experience. Moreover, the ideal fostered throughout the text is not, as is frequently the case, the attainment, of mere argumentative skill, but candor and fair-mindedness in seeking to come to right conclusions concerning questions about which there is an intelligent difference of opinion. The employment of a series of exercises requiring the co-operation of the whole class, and based upon a single question carried through the various stages of the developing theory, is especially commendable; it gives to the student's work a continuity which frequent assignments of a more or less unrelated character render impossible. By means of this simple teaching-device the author secures the sustained effort that is so necessary to any piece of creditable workmanship. The tests of evidence and the sources and methods of using evidence are adequately presented and freely illustrated, while the exercises at the close of each chapter are both interesting and practicable.

It may be objected that the title, *Essentials of Exposition and Argument*, is misleading, in that the author treats exposition more as a point of departure than as a component part of the text. But when it is remembered that argumentation is only a special kind of explanation, and that all good argument is dependent upon lucid exposition, the author's method of treatment finds ample justification.

J. R. BRUMM

THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

The Study of History in Secondary Schools. Report to the American Historical Association by a Committee of Five: ANDREW C. McLAUGHLIN, Chairman, CHARLES H. HASKINS, CHARLES W. MANN, JAMES H. ROBINSON, and JAMES SULLIVAN. New York: Macmillan, 1911. Pp. 72. \$0.25.

The Committee of Five, appointed at Madison in 1907 to revise the report of the Committee of Seven published in 1899, has but few changes to recommend in the scheme for historical study in the secondary schools proposed by the other committee. After a careful canvass the new committee believes that "the schools are taking history more seriously than they did ten years ago." This is an encouraging word for teachers of history, and it means both that more time is being given to history in the curriculum and that more care is being taken to select trained teachers of history for the history classes. Indeed, the Committee is hopeful that a four-year course in history in the high schools will become quite general. At present the Committee finds thirty-eight out of ninety schools circularized offering the four-year course, and forty-two

schools offering a three-year course. This looks as if the majority of schools would continue to crowd their history course into three years.

The Committee, in dealing with the complaint which has come from many schools that the period of ancient history (from the earliest times to Charlemagne's coronation) is both too long and too difficult a subject for the first year of high school, points out the essential difficulties of finding any other place for the ancient history, and suggests that the method of instruction be made very simple. A very illuminating and helpful point is the distinction the Committee draws between events of importance in ancient history and those of importance in mediaeval history in the years 325 to 800.

The Committee lays great stress on the need for a more intensive study of the modern period in European history, which quite generally gets but step-motherish treatment after the demands of ancient, mediaeval, English, and American history have been met. If but three years can be devoted to history in the high school, the Committee thinks that the English history (in the middle year) should be so broadly treated as to bring out the main facts of European history. The contact of England with the Continent ever since the days of William the Conqueror has been close, and all the main facts of Continental development, from the decay of feudalism to the modern scramble for colonial possessions, could be presented in their essentials by the skilful instructor in English history.

In a concluding section the report emphasizes the desirability of a two-year course in history in trade and commercial schools, as an indispensable background for the industrial and economic history generally studied in these schools.

Reading References for English History. By HENRY LEWIN CANNON. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1910. Pp. xv+475. \$2.50.

Professor Cannon has done both the teacher and the student a great service in his elaborate book of reading references for English history. He has gone over the immense collection of works on English history in several university and city libraries and sifted out the most significant and accessible of them for his basic bibliography. The 2,054 works chosen are carefully arranged in groups, such as "general bibliographical works," "historical aids," "works relating to more than one period," and these are further subdivided into such topics as historical geography, archaeology, numismatics, heraldry, philology. The works on economic and social conditions, religion, education, industry, law, and colonies, are well selected, and are our first adequate collection of works on such topics.

The second part of the book (pp. 165-475) is taken up with topics and references covering the whole field of English history. The topics are divided into nine chapters, corresponding to the ordinary major divisions of English history, and these chapters are subdivided into a number of sections, following the kings' reigns generally. Under each section (following a brief summary of the period) are listed sources and modern accounts, with bibliographies of illustrative material in prose and poetry. The references are to the volumes listed in the first part, and they are specially valuable for their preciseness in volume and page. A concluding chapter on the British Empire gives us the most useful literature on colonial history and government. Valuable appendices on biography and historical fiction and poetry are followed by an exceptionally full index.

Professor Cannon's exhaustive book will enable the instructor to plan and supervise the collateral reading of his students in English history with far greater efficiency

than he could command without these valuable lists. It will also enable the student doing research work in English history to find his material without waste of time in laborious search through the library shelves.

DAVID S. MUZZEY

THE ETHICAL CULTURE SCHOOL
NEW YORK

Commercial Geography. By ALBERT PERRY BRIGHAM. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1911. Pp. xvi+469. \$1.30.

Mr. Brigham writes from a full mind; he knows his subject in an exceptionally complete and thorough manner. Consequently mistakes are few and only accidental, and the questions to be raised are of his judgment in selection and his manner of presentation.

His plan is to devote one hundred and ten pages to an introduction. Herein he describes the wheat, cotton, cattle, iron, and coal industries, and discusses the principles of commercial geography. Then follows (pp. 111-286) a discussion of the United States, after which (pp. 287-448) come descriptions of the other countries of the world. The aim is to assign to foreign countries a space in accordance rather with their importance to the United States than with their intrinsic significance (p. iii). Few, however, will agree that two-thirds of a page is enough for Japan; and the whole treatment of eastern Asia should be expanded. Otherwise the proportions seem to follow with justice the aim of the author.

Mr. Brigham has a good conception of the various factors affecting commercial geography. Natural conditions are given the primary place, but the human factor and inherited training are recognized, as in the accounts of England and of France, and in the case of Australia the social organization is described. Such references to population, however, are not consistently made, and so comparisons are difficult. Failure to mention the Negro and the French Canadian, in the comparatively long accounts of the United States and Canada, seems strange. Practically no attempt is made to treat "specialties" of commerce, such as the art products of Italy, and, while there are some exceptions, the emphasis seems a little too heavily laid on the cruder products.

The illustrations are admirable in their choice and clearness of reproduction. Particularly good are the illustrative maps, most of which seem to have been made especially for this volume. The style is not an easy one. The sentence: "Canada has the advantage of short degrees of longitude in her more northern position, and thus offers a shorter route between Europe and the Orient," even if the students grasp its meaning, leads to an artificial mode of thought. There are few errors, but from the table on p. 108 Maine is omitted.

In many respects this is the best book that has yet appeared in its field. It is far removed from those aggregations of innumerable facts which for a time were the only texts available for the study. It is a book, however, which needs a good teacher, both because of the system of arrangement and from the fact that it should be used with supplementary material. Lists of references should have accompanied it. In conclusion, this review is not made so long as the importance of the work might demand, because the book is one which every teacher of the subject should examine for himself, and should have in his school library, even if it be not used as the textbook.

CARL RUSSELL FISH

THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

BOOKS RECEIVED

EDUCATION AND PHILOSOPHY

- All the Children of All the People: A Study of the Attempt to Educate Everybody.* By WILLIAM HAWLEY SMITH. New York: Macmillan, 1912. Pp. x+346. \$1.50 net.
- The Century and the School, and Other Educational Essays.* By FRANK LOUIS SOLDAN. New York: Macmillan, 1912. Pp. viii+206. \$1.25 net.
- Zum deutschen Kultur- und Bildungsleben.* Fünfte Sammlung vermischter Aufsätze von WILHELM MÜNCH. Berlin: Weidmannsche Buchhandlung, 1912. Pp. viii+338. M. 6.50.
- Experimentelle Pädagogik, mit besonderer Rücksicht auf die Erziehung durch die Tat.* Von W. A. LAY. Zweite, verbesserte und vermehrte Auflage. (Aus Natur und Geisteswelt, 224. Bändchen.) Leipzig: Teubner, 1912. Pp. viii+137. Illustrated. M. 1.25.
- Free Will and Human Responsibility: A Philosophical Argument.* By HERMAN HARRELL HORNE. New York: Macmillan, 1912. Pp. xvi+197. \$1.50 net.
- The Eleventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.* Part I. *Industrial Education: Typical Experiments Described and Interpreted.* By F. M. LEAVITT, G. A. MURKIN, M. W. MURRAY, J. F. BARKER, H. B. WILSON, C. F. PERRY, A. L. SAFFORD, P. JOHNSTON, M. BLOOMFIELD, and B. W. JOHNSON. Edited by S. CHESTER PARKER, Secretary. Pp. 124. Part II. *Agricultural Education in Secondary Schools.* By A. C. MONAHAN, R. W. STIMSON, D. J. CROSBY, W. H. FRENCH, H. F. BUTTON, F. R. CRANE, W. R. HART, and G. F. WARREN. Edited by S. CHESTER PARKER, Secretary. Pp. 113. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1912. Each part, \$0.75.
- College Requirements and the Secondary Curriculum.* Addresses Presented at the Educational Conference Held at the University of Vermont in Connection with the Inauguration of Guy Potter Benton as President of the University, October 5, 1911. Burlington: The University of Vermont, 1912. Pp. 79.
- Eleventh Annual Report of the Director of Education for the Philippine Islands, for the Fiscal Year July 1, 1910, to June 30, 1911.* Manila: Bureau of Printing, 1911. Pp. 109. Illustrated.
- Report on the Boston School System by the Finance Commission of the City of Boston.* Boston: Printing Department, 1911. Pp. 234.
- Finding Employment for Children Who Leave the Grade Schools to Go to Work.* Report to the Chicago Woman's Club, The Chicago Association of Collegiate Alumnae, and the Woman's City Club. Chicago: School of Civics and Philanthropy, Department of Social Investigation. Pp. 56. \$0.25.
- Fifth Annual Report of the Advisory Committee of Business Men of the Boston High School of Commerce.* Boston, 1911. Pp. 7.
- The High-School Teacher's Professional Library: One Hundred Titles.* By RAYMOND MCFARLAND. Middlebury, Vt.: Middlebury College, 1911. Pp. 16.
- Professional Directory of Administrators and Teachers in Accredited High Schools of Kansas.* Lawrence: The School of Education of the University of Kansas, 1912. Pp. 47.

- Conference on Commercial Education.* Addresses by PRESIDENT HEPBURN, F. V. THOMPSON, CHANCELLOR BROWN, SUPERINTENDENT MAXWELL, J. J. SHEPPARD, J. L. TILDSLEY, JAMES G. CANNON, and GEORGE P. BRETT. (Proceedings of Special Meeting, February 15, 1912, of the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York.) Pp. 40.
- Bulletins of the Board of Education of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. 1911, No. 3, Whole Number 3. 1912, No. 1, Whole Number 5. *Information Relating to the Establishment and Administration of State-Aided Vocational Schools.* Pp. 57, 41.
- United States Bureau of Education, Library Circular No. 2. *Monthly Record of Current Educational Publications.* Compiled by the Library Division of the Bureau of Education, under the Direction of JOHN D. WOLCOTT. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1912. Pp. 12.
- High-School Manual for Teachers.* Prepared by WILLIAM H. HAND on the Authority of the State Board of Education of South Carolina. Columbia, S.C.: The R. L. Bryan Co., 1911. Pp. 102.
- Standardization of the Schools of Kansas.* By JOHN ADDISON CLEMENT. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1912. Pp. iv+130. \$0.50 net.
- Some Present Problems of Education.* By JOSEPH K. HART and CLARENCE L. CLARKE. Seattle: 1912. Pp. 48.
- List of Library Reports and Bulletins in the Collection of the University of Illinois Library School.* Compiled by FLORENCE RISING CURTIS. (University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. IX, No. 12.) Urbana-Champaign: The University of Illinois, 1912. Pp. iv+22.
- Vocations for Boys.* *The Baker.* Pp. 16. *Confectionery Manufacture.* Pp. 16. *The Grocer.* Pp. 22. *The Machinist.* Pp. 22. *The Architect.* Pp. 20. *The Landscape Artist.* Pp. 22. Boston: The Vocation Bureau, 1911.
- Vocations for Boston Girls.* Bulletin No. 1, *Telephone Operating.* Pp. 10. Bulletin No. 2, *Bookbinding.* Pp. 9. Boston: The Girls' Trade Education League, 1911.

ENGLISH

- Growth and Structure of the English Language.* By OTTO JESPERSEN. (Awarded the Volney Prize of the Institut de France, 1906.) Second edition, revised. Leipzig: Teubner, 1912. Pp. vi+259. M. 3.60.
- Grammar and Thinking: A Study of the Working Conceptions in Syntax.* By ALFRED DWIGHT SHEFFIELD. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1912. Pp. xii+193. \$1.50.
- English for Secondary Schools.* By W. F. WEBSTER. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1912. Pp. viii+352. \$0.90.
- The National Education Association Phonetic Alphabet, with a Review of the Whipple Experiments.* By RAYMOND WEEKS, JAMES W. BRIGHT, and CHARLES H. GRANDGENT. Lancaster, Pa.: The New Era Printing Co., 1912. Pp. 91.
- College-Entrance Requirements in English and the High-School Course.* By JAMES FLEMING HOSIC. (English Problems: A Series of Papers for Teachers of English in Secondary Schools and Colleges, edited by CHARLES SWAIN THOMAS.) Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1912. Pp. 16.
- Shorter English Poems from the College-Entrance Requirements in English.* Edited by VIDA D. SCUDDER. (The Lake English Classics, edited by LINDSAY TODD DAMON.) Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1912. Pp. 376.

- Selections from Abraham Lincoln.* Edited by ANDREW S. DRAPER. (The Gateway Series, edited by HENRY VAN DYKE.) New York: American Book Co., 1911. Pp. 162. With a portrait. \$0.35.
- Shakespeare's The Life of Henry the Eighth.* Edited by CHARLES G. DUNLAP. (The Tudor Shakespeare, edited by WILLIAM ALLAN NEILSON and ASHLEY HORACE THORNDIKE.) New York: Macmillan, 1912. Pp. xx+168. With a portrait. \$0.35.

LATIN, FRENCH, AND GERMAN

- Cicero: Six Orations.* Edited by J. REMSEN BISHOP, FREDERICK ALWIN KING, and NATHAN WILBUR HELM. New York: American Book Co., 1912. Pp. 164+95+109. Illustrated. \$1.00.
- Trente et quarante.* Par EDMOND ABOUT. Edited, with Notes, Exercises, and Vocabulary, by T. H. BERTENSHAW. Authorized edition. (Longmans' French Texts, Advanced Series.) London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1911. Pp. 126. \$0.35.
- Deutsches Lesebuch in Lautschrift (zugleich in der deutschen Schulschreibung) als Hilfsbuch zur Erwerbung einer mustergültigen Aussprache.* Herausgegeben von WILHELM VIETOR. Zweiter Teil. Zweites Lesebuch. Zweite Auflage. Leipzig: Teubner, 1912. Pp. viii+148. M. 3.
- Lose Blätter: Eine Sammlung von Anekdoten und Geschichten.* By ERNA M. STOLTZE. New York: American Book Co., 1911. Pp. 127. \$0.30.
- Easy German Poetry for Beginners.* Edited, with Notes and Vocabulary, by CHESTER WILLIAM COLLMANN. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1912. Pp. x+140. \$0.40.
- German for Daily Use.* By E. P. PRENTYS. German revised by ALMA BUCHER. New York: William R. Jenkins Co., 1912. Pp. vi+178. \$0.50.

HISTORY

- The Leading Facts of English History.* By D. H. MONTGOMERY. Revised edition. (The Leading Facts of History Series.) Boston: Ginn & Co., 1912. Pp. xviii+444+lxix. Illustrated. \$1.20.
- A Hundred Years of History: From Record and Chronicle, 1216-1327.* By HILDA JOHNSTONE. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1912. Pp. xvi+292. \$1.60 net.

MATHEMATICS AND SCIENCE

- Complete Business Arithmetic.* By GEORGE H. VAN TUYL. New York: American Book Co., 1911. Pp. 416. \$1.00.
- Textbook of Physics.* By C. E. LINEBARGER. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1911. Pp. viii+471. Illustrated.
- A School Chemistry.* By F. R. L. WILSON and G. W. HEDLEY. Oxford: The Clarendon Press, 1912. Pp. xxii+572. Illustrated. 4s. 6d.
- High-School Geography: Physical, Economic, and Regional.* By CHARLES REDWAY DRYER. Parts I and II: *Physical and Economic.* New York: American Book Co., 1911. Pp. 340. Illustrated. \$1.20.
- Elementary Plant Biology.* By JAMES EDWARD PEABODY and ARTHUR ELLSWORTH HUNT. New York: Macmillan, 1912. Pp. xvii+207. Illustrated. \$0.75 net.
- A Nature Study Guide.* By W. S. FURNEAUX. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1912. Pp. xvi+293. With 225 illustrations. \$1.35 net.
- A Handbook of Home Economics.* By ETTA PROCTOR FLAGG. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1912. Pp. iv+98. \$0.75.

CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE IN THE PERIODICALS¹

IRENE WARREN

Librarian, School of Education, The University of Chicago

- Abandoning night schools. *Lit. D.*, 44:425-26. (2 Mr. '12.)
 (The) American School Hygiene Association. *Science* 35:212-13. (9 Fe. '12.)
 ANDERSON, LEWIS F. Industrial education during the Middle Ages. I.
Educa. 32:354-59. (Fe. '12.)
 ———. Some facts regarding vocational training among the ancient Greeks
 and Romans. *School R.* 20:191-201. (Mr. '12.)
 ANDRESS, J. MACE. The last vestige of Puritanism in the public schools of
 Massachusetts. *School R.* 20:161-69. (Mr. '12.)
 ANGELL, JAMES R. The combination of certificate and examination systems.
School R. 20:145-60. (Mr. '12.)
 ASHLEY, M. L. The acquisition of skill. *Educa. Bi-mo.* 6:225-35. (Fe. '12.)
 AYRES, LEONARD P. The relation between entering age and subsequent
 progress among school children. *Educa.* 32:325-33. (Fe. '12.)
 BAIN, H. FOSTER. The imperial universities of Japan. *Pop. Sci. Mo.* 80:
 246-56. (Mr. '12.)
 BARTLETT, A. E. The psychological value of the classics. *School R.* 20:186-
 90. (Mr. '12.)
 BENNETT, CHARLES A. Vocational training—to what extent justifiable in
 public schools? *Voca. Educa.* 1:258-62. (Mr. '12.)
 BICKNELL, PERCY F. Mirthful moods of a librarian. *Dial* 52:83-84. (1 Fe.
 '12.)
 BOBBITT, JOHN FRANKLIN. The elimination of waste in education. *El. School*
T. 12:259-71. (Fe. '12.)
 (A) boy's school in Utopia by a Utopian. *Atlan.* 109:404-11. (Mr. '12.)
 BRÜERE, MARTHA B. The cost of children. *Outl.* 100:320-24. (10 Fe. '12.)

¹ Abbreviations.—*Atlan.*, Atlantic Monthly; *Cent.*, Century; *Educa.*, Education; *Educa. Bimo.*, Educational Bi-monthly; *Educa. R.*, Educational Review; *El. School T.*, Elementary School Teacher; *Harp. W.*, Harper's Weekly; *J. of Educa. (Bost.)*, Journal of Education (Boston); *J. of Educa. Psychol.*, Journal of Educational Psychology; *Lit. D.*, Literary Digest; *Outl.*, Outlook; *Pop. Sci. Mo.*, Popular Science Monthly; *Psychol. Clinic*, Psychological Clinic; *Relig. Educa.*, Religious Education; *R. of Rs.*, Review of Reviews; *School R.*, School Review; *Sci. Am.*, Scientific American; *Sci. Am. Sup.*, Scientific American Supplement; *Voca. Educa.*, Vocational Education.

- CAMERON, NORMAN. A new method for determining rate of progress in a small school system. *Psychol. Clinic* 5:279-92. (Fe. '12.)
 (The) cinematograph as an educator. *Lit. D.* 44:264. (10 Fe. '12.)
- COOK, W. A. A brief survey of the development of compulsory education in the United States. *El. School T.* 12:331-35. (Mr. '12.)
- COOKE, FLORA J. Minimum grade requirements in English and mathematics in the Francis W. Parker school. *El. School T.* 12:245-52. (Fe. '12.)
- COOLEY, EDWIN G. The Scottish system of continuation schools. *Voca. Educa.* 1:225-42. (Mr. '12.)
- COOPER, CLAYTON SEDGWICK. The American undergraduate. *Cent.* 83:720-30. (Mr. '12.)
- (A) correspondence school for religious school teachers. *Relig. Educa.* 6:534-36. (Fe. '12.)
- Critics of religious garb in Indian schools. *Lit. D.* 44:428. (2 Mr. '12.)
- DAVIS, JESSE B. Vocational guidance. *Educa. Bi-mo.* 6:206-17. (Fe. '12.)
- DRAPER, ANDREW S. Weaknesses in American universities. *Educa. R.* 43:217-35. (Mr. '12.)
- Federal care of children. *Lit. D.* 44:363-64. (24 Fe. '12.)
- FISCHER, EMIL. Recent achievements and problems of chemistry. *Educa. R.* 43:250-66. (Mr. '12.)
- FITZPATRICK, FRANK A. The bookman in his relation to the textbook problem. *Educa. R.* 43:282-91. (Mr. '12.)
- FREEMAN, FRANK N. Grouped objects as basis for number idea. *El. School T.* 12:306-14. (Mr. '12.)
- HANDSCHIN, CHARLES HART. A historical sketch of the Gouin series-system of teaching modern languages and of its use in the United States. *School R.* 20:170-75. (Mr. '12.)
- HAWKES, H. E. Educational values in mathematical teaching. *Educa. R.* 43:267-73. (Mr. '12.)
- HIMELICK, R. W. Supplementary report on the study of retardation in the schools of Indianapolis. *El. School T.* 12:314-30. (Mr. '12.)
- Instinct and education. *Lit. D.* 44:369. (24 Fe. '12.)
- JOHNSON, FRANKLIN WINSLOW. Moral education through school activities. *Relig. Educa.* 6:493-502. (Fe. '12.)
- JUDD, CHARLES H. Studies in the principles of education. *El. School T.* 12:278-86. (Fe. '12.)
- KAEMPFERT, WALDEMAR B. Welfare work in Germany IV. *Sci. Am.* 106:193-94. (2 Mr. '12.)
- KELSEY, FRANCIS W. The seventeenth Michigan classical conference. *School R.* 20:176-85. (Mr. '12.)
- KENNEDY, JOSEPH. The dam is out! *Educa. R.* 43:274-81. (Mr. '12.)
- LEAVITT, FRANK M. The independent industrial schools of Newton, Massachusetts. *Voca. Educa.* 1:243-57. (Mr. '12.)

- LINDSTROM, E. GEORGE. Trade instruction versus industrial education from the point of view of a practical trade unionist. *Voca. Educa.* 1:273-78. (Mr. '12.)
- LOGIE, ALFRED E. Something worth while but not in the curriculum. *Educa. Bi-mo.* 6:203-5. (Fe. '12.)
- LOPEZ, JOHN S. The school and the show-case. *Harp. W.* 56:13. (24 Fe. '12.)
- LORD, J. COURTENAY. Children's courts. *Child* 2:392-95. (Fe. '12.)
- LURTON, FREEMAN E. A three-year retardation record. *El. School T.* 12:336-37. (Mr. '12.)
- McKEEVER, WILLIAM A. Relation of the schools to vocational training. *Normal Instructor* 21:11. (Mr. '12.)
- McMANIS, JOHN T. Indirect ethical instruction in high school. *Educa. Bi-mo.* 6:196-202. (Fe. '12.)
- McMURTRIE, DOUGLAS C. The care of crippled children in America. *Child* 2:378-85. (Fe. '12.)
- MACNAUGHTON-JONES, H. Love in the evolution of the child. *Child* 2:371-77. (Fe. '12.)
- MARQUARDT, W. W. Philippine school of arts and trades. *Voca. Educa.* 1:263-72. (Mr. '12.)
- MARRIS, ISABEL D. The making of a hooligan. *Child* 2:386-91. (Fe. '12.)
- MARTIN, GEORGE H. School activities for moral development. *Relig. Educa.* 6:503-10. (Fe. '12.)
- MEYER, FRANK B. Religion and morality in Latin of the high school. *Relig. Educa.* 6:520-26. (Fe. '12.)
- MONROE, HARRIET. The training of Chinese children. *Cent.* 83:643-52. (Mr. '12.)
- MOORE, J. HOWARD. Ethical education. *Educa. Bi-mo.* 6:189-95. (Fe. '12.)
- MOWRY, DUANE. Vocational or cultural education—which? The Amherst idea. *Educa.* 32:373-76. (Fe. '12.)
- Museum extension work in Chicago. *Science* 35:261-62. (15 Fe. '12.)
- (The) newspaper as childhood's enemy. *Survey* 27:1794-96. (24 Fe. '12.)
- PALMER, FRANK HERBERT. Grading an ungraded Sunday school. *Educa.* 32:334-42. (Fe. '12.)
- PROSSER, CHARLES A. The training of the factory worker through industrial education, I. *J. of Educa. (Bost.)* 75:227-28. (29 Fe. '12.)
- RIORDAN, RAYMOND. School activities for moral development. *Relig. Educa.* 6:511-19. (Fe. '12.)
- RITCHIE, JOHN, JR. Shall I give my boy a technical education? *Sci. Am.* 106:202-3. (2 Mr. '12.)
- ROOSEVELT, THEODORE. The court of the children. *Outl.* 100:490-91. (2 Mr. '12.)
- SARGENT, D. A. Coeducational gymnastics in elementary and high school. *Educa. Bi-mo.* 6:218-24. (Fe. '12.)

- SCHULZE, ERNEST. The winning of the Nobel prizes as criterion of the contributions of nations to human progress. *Sci. Am. Sup.* 73:1111. (17 Fe. '12.)
- SEASHORE, CARL E. The measure of a singer. *Science* 35:201-12. (9 Fe. '12.)
- SHOLTY, MYRTLE. A study of the reading vocabulary of children. *El. School T.* 12:272-77. (Fe. '12.)
- SIMON, ABRAM. The Jewish child and the American public school. *Relig. Educa.* 6:527-33. (Fe. '12.)
- STEVENS, ELLEN YALE. Montessori and Froebel—a comparison. *El. School T.* 12:253-58. (Fe. '12.)
- STUART, DUANE REED. Latin in the college course. *Educa. R.* 43:236-49. (Mr. '12.)
- STURGES, ANNIS M. Some present methods of dealing with deficient children in a public school. *Educa.* 32:366-72. (Fe. '12.)
- TERMAN, LEWIS M. Professional training for child hygiene. *Pop. Sci. Mo.* 80:289-97. (Mr. '12.)
- . School clinics for free medical and dental treatment. *Psychol. Clinic* 5:271-78. (Fe. '12.)
- TERMAN, LEWIS M., and CHILDS, H. G. A tentative revision and extension of the Binet-Simon measuring scale of intelligence. *J. of Educa. Psychol.* 3:61-74. (Fe. '12.)
- THURSTON, HENRY F. New methods being tried at Gary, Ind., and many watching the results. *Cook County School News* 8:1-4. (Fe. '12.)
- (A) "welfare" institution on a novel plan. *R. of Rs.* 45:325-28. (Mr. '12.)
- WHITEING, RICHARD. The technical education of kings. *Youth's Companion.* 86:83. (15 Fe. '12.)
- WILD, LAURA H. Training for social efficiency: the relation of efficiency to life. *Educa.* 32:343-53. (Fe. '12.)
- WILM, EMIL C. The moral and religious influence of colleges. *Educa. R.* 43:292-309. (Mr. '12.)
- WINCH, W. H. Mental fatigue in day-school children as measured by immediate memory. II. *J. of Educa. Psychol.* 3:75-82. (Fe. '12.)

